

THE
SCHOOL REVIEW
A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Edited by
THE FACULTY OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

VOLUME XXXIV

JANUARY—DECEMBER, 1926



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

School of Education
Oct. 1, 1928

Published

January, February, March, April, May, June, September,
October, November, December, 1926

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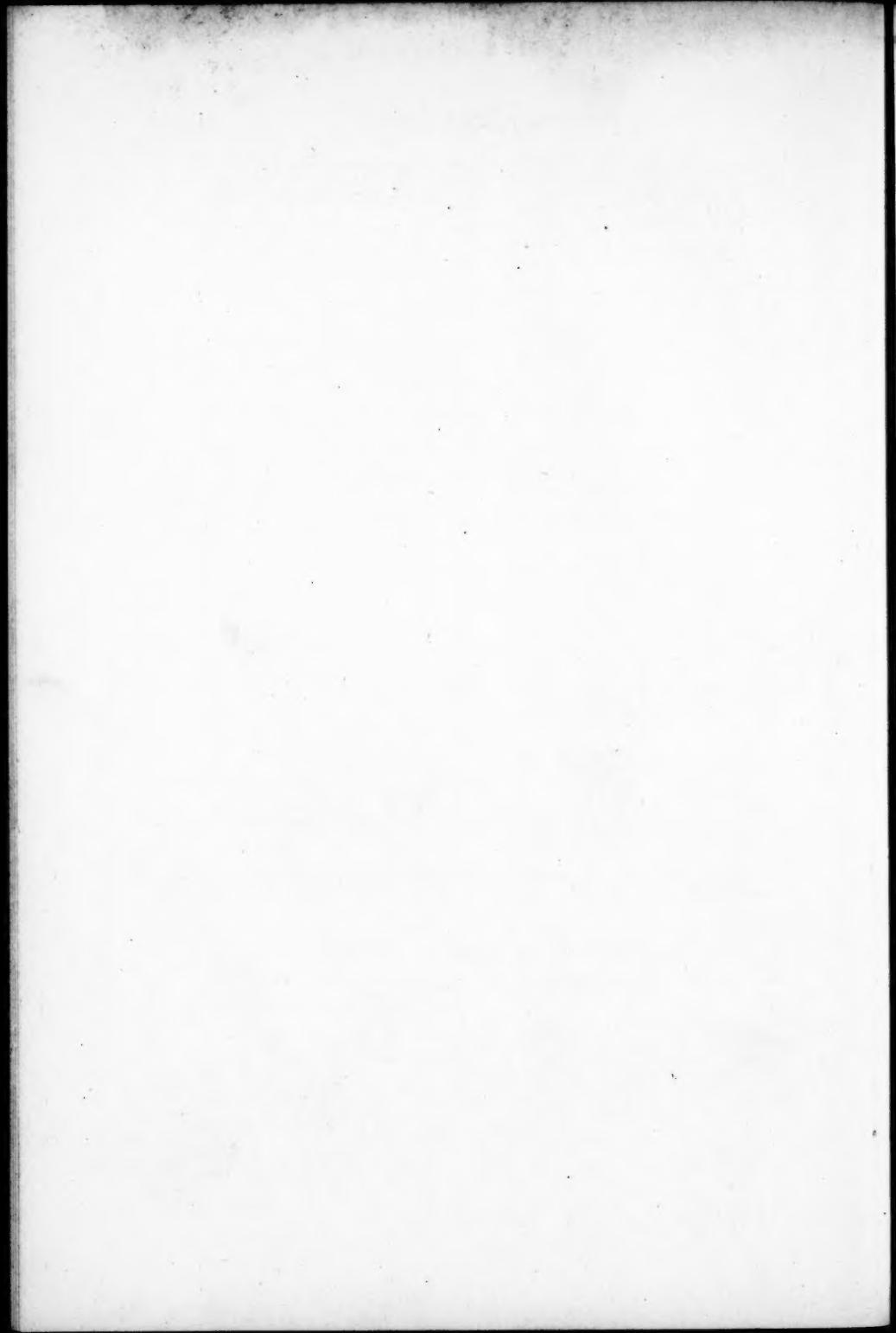
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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXXIV

JANUARY 1926

NUMBER 1

Educational News and Editorial Comment

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

The University of Chicago Dinner, which occurs annually during the week of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, will be held in Washington, D.C., on Wednesday evening, February 24, 1926, at Rauscher's Restaurant. Tickets, which are \$3.00 each, may be secured from William S. Gray, University of Chicago.

SIZE OF SCHOOL AND EDUCATIONAL EFFICIENCY

The following item from the *New York Times* reports the action of a group of citizens of New York City and raises a question of school administration which is of great importance.

Protesting the increasing size of the city's high-school buildings, a committee of citizens has appealed to the board of education for a conference to discuss new standards for construction. The letter says:

"A committee has been formed for the purpose of bringing to the attention of the board of education what we regard as an unfortunate tendency in public-school construction. During the past year seven high schools have been built, the smallest of which has been planned to seat 3,200 children.

"We understand that a new high-school building has been planned to seat a minimum of five thousand boys. Some of the principals of the new high schools have stated that the buildings are entirely too large. Our committee believes that a conference with your board might result in the consideration of new

standards for the construction of the city's schools. To this end, the undersigned members of the committee request an official hearing with your body within the near future."

The advantages of school buildings of large capacity are evident. In large buildings it is possible to reduce the overhead costs, to offer a greater variety of courses, and to utilize more fully such special equipment as is provided in shops, laboratories, gymnasiums, and studios. The disadvantages are equally evident. The individual pupil is likely to be lost sight of. Economy in overhead costs may be carried to the point where supervision of pupils and of teachers is wholly inadequate.

The problem of weighing the advantages and the disadvantages has not been urgent until recent years. It arises more urgently in the case of high schools than in the case of elementary schools because of the demand in the high school for special equipment and for a varied curriculum. There is here a problem which the principals of city high schools ought to make a subject of investigation. One method of attacking the problem would be to study the costs of a varied curriculum in two schools, one a large school and one a small school. A second method would be to study the operation of the elective system, to examine the kinds of choices which pupils make and those which they would be likely to make if schools were increased in size. A third study might deal with the details of supervision.

It is evident from the newspaper item which is quoted that parents feel keen anxiety about their children when a city begins to erect mammoth school buildings.

INTELLIGENCE TESTS AND COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

The *New York Times* reports as follows the decision of the College Entrance Examination Board to experiment with intelligence tests:

Psychological tests for the admission of students, already used by some colleges independently, will be offered for the first time next June to all the members of the College Entrance Examination Board, but some colleges, notably Harvard and Bryn Mawr, will reject all psychological or "intelligence" tests for any purpose whatsoever, it was said, because "they are unintelligent."

Forty colleges are members of the College Entrance Examination Board, which for twenty-five years has drawn up the traditional written examinations

not only for its own members but also for 150 other institutions. The board met in its annual meeting in the Columbia University library, and it was decided to adopt the "intelligence" tests which were used during the world-war, some professors calling the action "the most important development in educational cooperation in the history of this country."

Other professors, it became known later, demurred. The "head of one of the foremost educational institutions in the country," whose name was not disclosed, declared, according to Dr. Thomas Scott Fiske, of Columbia University, secretary of the board, that he could not support the proposed innovation. "He said that during the world-war he had had many opportunities to observe at close range the psychological tests adopted by the War Department," said Dr. Fiske, "and that he would truthfully voice his convictions by saying that he is 'opposed to intelligence examinations because they are unintelligent.'"

Dr. Henry Pennypacker, of Harvard University, vice-president of the board, and the representative from Bryn Mawr, particularly, it was said, stated that they had no use for intelligence examinations for admission and would not employ them in any form.

Dr. Fiske said that probably 90 per cent of the colleges and secondary schools represented on the board would use the tests in some form. No college is required to use them, since any recommendation of the College Entrance Examination Board may be rejected by any member, but many colleges not members, may, with the members, use the tests in "classifying and grouping students."

"The board's decision to enlarge its activities by the inauguration of psychological tests," said Dr. Fiske, "was largely influenced by the consideration that, if it held these examinations for several years under careful safeguard, it would be able to determine in a very satisfactory way just how valuable the tests really are. This action should not be taken to mean that a majority of the members of the board believe that such tests are necessary or even valuable in determining the qualifications of candidates for admission to college."

"A number of institutions consider that intelligence examinations have not yet progressed beyond the purely experimental stage. Still others intend to use them not for the purpose of admitting new students but for the purpose of classifying or grouping the students after admission."

"The board felt that, inasmuch as many colleges belonging to it are now holding psychological examinations, an opportunity was presented to co-ordinate and standardize these examinations and thus perform for intelligence examinations a service similar to that which it undertook twenty-five years ago in connection with the entrance examination of that time."

AWARDS TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR HEALTH PROGRAMS

The *Child Health Bulletin*, published by the American Child Health Association, makes the following announcement.

The award of \$1,000 in the national study of secondary-school health programs conducted by the American Child Health Association went in October to the following schools: the Jacksonville Consolidated School, Jacksonville, Arkansas; the New Trier Township High School, Kénilworth, Illinois; the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, New York. The amount will be divided equally among the three schools, to be used for the promotion of health education.

This contest grew out of the many requests received by the Health Education Division of the American Child Health Association for workable health programs for high schools. It was regarded less as a competition than as a means of exchanging ideas and experiences.

The contest brought to light the extremely valuable work in health education which is being done in schools of high-school grade throughout the country. Outlines and analyses of their health work were submitted by more than fifty schools from all parts of the United States and of many varied types, large and small public high schools, parochial schools, distinguished private schools, consolidated rural public high schools, and large city high schools. The result of this study is a presentation of the progressive ideas in educating for health which are taking root in our school systems and the very definite place this phase of education is assuming in school curricula.

The following schools are noteworthy for especially interesting programs:

- Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California
- Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles, California
- East High School, Des Moines, Iowa
- Bradford Academy (private), Bradford, Massachusetts
- Milton Academy (private), Milton, Massachusetts
- Newton High School, Newton, Massachusetts
- Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan
- John Burroughs Country Day School (private), St. Louis, Missouri
- Central High School, Binghamton, New York
- Lincoln School of Teachers College (private), New York City
- Manhattan Trade School for Girls, New York City
- Horace Mann High School for Girls (private), New York City
- Fairmount Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio
- Hathaway-Brown School (private), Cleveland, Ohio
- Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma
- St. Thomas Junior High School, St. Thomas, Virgin Islands

The period of the study extended from the second half of the school year 1924-25 to its close, the contest closing July 1. The awards had to be made entirely on the written material submitted, as it was impossible to visit the different schools. The decision was made on a balanced program, one which showed effective results rather than a model plan and procedure.

The results of the study will take shape in a bulletin to be published by the American Child Health Association in the future, placing on record the most

valuable experiments in health education culled from the material submitted. This will make available to all schools the material gathered in this study, the actual results of tested experiments in health education in secondary schools.

SYLLABI ISSUED BY STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Syllabi of a number of high-school courses have recently been issued by the state departments of education of New York and of Minnesota. The bulletin of the State Department of Education of New York announces two of these as follows:

The state department of education has issued during the summer new syllabi for secondary schools in general science and in commercial subjects.

With the new syllabus in general science it will now be possible for pupils to study general science in place of first-year biology in the high school. The new course will enable the pupil to determine more intelligently the electives which he wishes to take in the fields of biology, physics, and chemistry in the later years of the high school.

The syllabus has been prepared as a comprehensive contribution to the teaching of general science in the state and presents a unified science course, dealing primarily with environment and adapted to the needs and capacities of the pupils during the seventh, eighth, and ninth years of school. Physiography, chemistry, geology, astronomy, agriculture, biology, and other sciences are given a place in the unified course. Slightly more emphasis has been placed upon biology, including agriculture, for the purpose of complying with the state hygiene laws and also to emphasize the central idea of the three-year course as the relation of man to his environment. Comprehensive, explicit directions and suggestions to teachers, a complete list of materials and apparatus to be used in connection with the one hundred demonstrations, and an extensive bibliography are given in the syllabus. The course consists of three divisions, the first being a consideration of our environment and its relation to us; the second, the study of our environment and how we adapt ourselves to it; and the third, an investigation of the nature of energy and work as relating to our environment in order to discover how we may and do direct and control the forms of nature and use them to insure our own comfort, prosperity, and improvement.

The syllabus in commercial subjects gives a comprehensive program of studies for four-year high schools and consists of the following subjects: business writing, commercial arithmetic, elementary business training, bookkeeping 1 and 2, typewriting 1 and 2, economic geography 1 and 2, shorthand 1 and 2, business English, and commercial law.

The schools in which commercial teachers work in New York State vary from the city school with its department heads and its special teachers for each subject to the very numerous small high schools where one teacher has charge of all the commercial work with no one upon whom she may call for assistance. At times the commercial teacher is required to teach other subjects, such as

mathematics, English, or a foreign language. Obviously, no syllabus can be made that will exactly meet the needs of both groups. The suggested courses in the new syllabus are planned to be of real assistance to the village high school teacher who is expected to compete with the specialists of the large schools. It is believed that the teachers of special subjects will also find these detailed outlines very helpful.

A number of pamphlets issued by the State Department of Education of Minnesota deal with English; social studies: (a) ancient and modern history, (b) American history, and (c) introduction to social science; science: (a) general science and general biological science and (b) physics and chemistry. Later pamphlets are to deal with mathematics, art, commercial education, agriculture, industrial training, and home economics.

In addition to the syllabi on special subjects, there is an introductory pamphlet dealing with the general problems of the high-school curriculum. This pamphlet contains valuable discussions on methods of teaching and on types of programs of study. There is a section devoted to the topic of extra-classroom activities, from which the following paragraphs are quoted as typical of much that is contained in the pamphlet.

The history of our attitudes toward these allied activities has shown three stages of development. The first was the stage of suppression, this policy being pursued on the ground that such activities represent illegitimate encroachments on the time of students, time which should be exclusively devoted to their "studies." The activities were irrepressible and continued to manifest themselves, but in untoward and derogatory forms, to an extent that called for a change in policy, which aimed at preventing their operating destructively. This was the policy of toleration and control. More recently there has been emerging a policy which admits their constructive possibilities and which aims at supervision and control that will achieve the values inherent.

The tendency toward legitimization raises the whole question of whether the activities should not become a part of the course work in associated fields, rather than to be set apart for separate administration and supervision. There are those who would prefer to see these activities incorporated as parts of the courses, and there is something to be said on behalf of such a procedure. There is, on the one hand, the danger that, in administering a separate program of extra-curricular activities, we shall be unintentionally removing from the courses of the school all or most of those activities in which students tend to engage spontaneously, leaving for course work only the more formal and less stimulating types of activity, to secure the performance of which some measure of coercion must be used. On the other hand, it may be questioned whether

there is not need for some leeway for student activity which should not or cannot be curricularized. Certainly, with present traditions among teachers as to method and content of courses and in our communities as to what should go forward as course work, it will be long before complete curricularization of all worth-while activities can be accomplished. In the meantime, we shall need to proceed with as close an alliance as possible between the curricular and the extra-curricular, keeping in mind the aims to be attained and the principles to be followed. With this in mind it seems more appropriate to designate these activities as "allied" or "collateral" rather than as "extra-curricular."

SABBATICAL LEAVES FOR TEACHERS

The United States Bureau of Education issues the following item.

Sabbatical leave, beginning in September, was granted to 176 instructors of New York City, the first group to be rewarded in this way for their service in the public schools of the city.

A committee of teachers of the normal schools of Massachusetts recently filed with the state board of education a report in which it is urged that provision be made for sabbatical leaves for the members of the faculties of the state normal schools. The following abstract of the report gives an account of present practices in the normal schools of the states other than Massachusetts.

No reply was received from six states—Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming. Of the forty-one remaining states, twenty-five have no arrangement for any kind of sabbatical leave; eight states grant a sabbatical year regularly either in some or in all of the normal schools; eight states have what we will call an informal arrangement, which in most cases is more flexible than a regular sabbatical year or is left entirely to the discretion of the principal or the governing board. These informal arrangements, however, function, so far as the teacher is concerned, like regularly arranged sabbatical years. Those states which have such arrangements in their systems are Alabama, Connecticut, Louisiana, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Washington, and West Virginia. Five states grant a regular sabbatical year or a leave of absence under the informal arrangement.

We have classified our returns by states partly because we are planning our work for the state as a whole and partly because in any state which grants a sabbatical year to any one school, there are other schools in that state which have some kind of an arrangement for leave of absence. Classifying by schools, we find that forty-three schools in the sixteen states where some arrangements are made grant a period of absence for further study or travel and sometimes for rest. Wherever this privilege has been granted and any opinion has been given by the officers in charge, the opinion has invariably been in favor of sabbatical leave of some sort.

In tabulating the conditions under which the sabbatical leave is granted, we find a considerable degree of uniformity. Only one—Tempe, Arizona—requires ten years of service previous to the granting of the leave of absence. Flagstaff, the only other normal school in the state of Arizona, and Maryville, Missouri, are at the other extreme and demand only two years of previous service. Whitewater, Wisconsin, requires but three years; Ellensburg, Washington, requires five. The majority of states require six years. We find the same conditions among the colleges, for here six and sometimes seven years are required in the very large majority of cases.

The salary which is granted during the leave of absence is as uniform as the term of service required, if not more so. Nearly all schools grant full salary for a leave of absence of a half-year or half salary for a full year. The few exceptions include one university which pays two-fifths of the salary and another which pays three-fifths.

Agreements concerning service following the year of absence are more varied. Many schools have no definite arrangements; it is merely a "gentleman's agreement," which is modified as the individuals may agree if it seems wise after they return. Of the schools from which we received replies, five ask for one year of service; three ask for two years of service; and three, for three years. Release from the contract is invariably granted on the return to the institution of a proportionate sum of money.

AMERICAN SPEECH

A new magazine, entitled, *American Speech*, appeared in October. It is published by the Williams & Wilkins Company, Baltimore, and is edited by Louise Pound, University of Nebraska; Kemp Malone, Johns Hopkins University; and Arthur Kennedy, Stanford University.

The matters with which the new journal is to concern itself are described as follows:

American Speech is interested in material dealing with current usages, speech in the schools, phenomena of vocabulary, pronunciation, lore of place-names, studies in style, studies in local dialect, discussion of slang, special scientific and other nomenclatures, and non-English languages in North America.

SCHOLARSHIP BULLETIN

V. K. Froula, principal of the Roosevelt High School, Seattle, Washington, issues a bulletin on scholarship three times a year. The purpose of the bulletin is to stimulate interest on the part of the pupils in the improvement of their scholastic standing. The subject marks are transmuted into points ($A = 4$, $B = 3$, $C = 2$, $D = 1$, $E = -1$), and the totals are arranged in a frequency table in the

form of a two-flight stairway. There are four figures on each step of the stairway. The first figure shows the number of points earned; the second shows the number of pupils who stand on this step; the third shows the number of pupils who stand above this step; and the fourth shows the number who stand below. For example, in the case of the following stairway for June, 1925, if a pupil's marks were B, B, C, and D, his score would be $3+3+2+1$, or 9. He would stand at the top of the first flight with 135 other pupils, below 738 other pupils and above 769 other pupils.

28.....	1.....	0.....	1642
21.....	2.....	1.....	1640
20.....	10.....	3.....	1630
19.....	8.....	13.....	1622
18.....	24.....	21.....	1598
17.....	19.....	45.....	1579
16.....	54.....	64.....	1525
15.....	69.....	118.....	1456
14.....	59.....	187.....	1397
13.....	83.....	246.....	1314
12.....	118.....	329.....	1196
11.....	134.....	447.....	1062
10.....	157.....	581.....	905
9.....	136.....	738.....	769
8.....	134.....	874.....	635
7.....	143.....	1008.....	492
6.....	110.....	1151.....	382
5.....	102.....	1261.....	280
4.....	78.....	1363.....	202
3.....	63.....	1441.....	139
2.....	55.....	1504.....	84
1.....	37.....	1559.....	47
0.....	21.....	1596.....	26
-1.....	9.....	1617.....	17
-2.....	10.....	1626.....	7
-3.....	4.....	1636.....	3
-4.....	3.....	1640.....	0

LIGHT ON THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

In recent months the citizens of Chicago have been given much misinformation with regard to the junior high school. They have been brought into a state approaching panic. In one district the

parents were literally incited to riot by interested demagogues. How far they have been misinformed and biased by what has been told them is revealed in the following letter written by a woman in Chicago to the superintendent of schools at Richmond, Indiana.

I have heard that Richmond included the junior high school in its school system and later discontinued it. I understand that the reasons for discontinuing it were set forth in an argument called, "Twenty-six Reasons for Discontinuing the Junior High School," or some similar title. Will you please tell me where and when that article was published and where it is available? If you have any copies at your disposal, I shall gladly reimburse you for any expense you find in sending me one.

I have heard too that Dr. Judd of the University of Chicago has answered your statements. That, too, would be interesting to see. Do you know where I could see that?

We are about to have a junior high school built which our children are to be forced to attend. I welcome any information from others who have tried this type of experiment in education. Personally, I feel that you are to be congratulated on your sagacity in rejecting it.

The answer of Superintendent W. G. Bate is as follows:

In reply to your letter relative to the junior high school, I believe that there must have been some misunderstanding as to the situation in Richmond. The junior high school has been included in the school system for more than twenty-five years, and we are committed to it after this long period of experience as one of the best features of our plan.

We do not feel that the junior high school is in any way an experiment now, nor has it been for a great number of years. On the other hand, our experience has furnished a great deal of data which will show that the junior high school helps in securing a flexibility in the school organization, allowing the adaption of the school to the varying needs of children, far superior to the traditional organization.

It appears to me that your district is to be congratulated on having the opportunity of a junior high school organization.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL COUNSELOR IN LOS ANGELES

The following statement, prepared by Guy M. Hoyt, assistant director of the Department of Psychology and Educational Research of the school system of Los Angeles, appeared in a recent issue of the Los Angeles *Educational Research Bulletin*.

The counselor is new to our schools, but his function is as old as education itself. Because of its recent origin, his job has not been completely bounded nor thoroughly analyzed. Until more exact boundaries have been set up and until

the duties have been analyzed, the paragraphs that follow will serve only as temporary guides.

Stated broadly, the chief duty of the counselor is *guidance*—educational guidance, health guidance, moral guidance, vocational guidance—altogether, life-guidance. To give effective guidance, the counselor must see the individual pupil on the threshold of high-school life as a vibrant personality confronted by a maze of educational opportunities and a multitude of character-forming experiences. At the same moment the counselor must vision the pupil as an adult, successful in his vocation, effective in his community, and contented in his family and personal life. The job, therefore, is to see the pupil as a whole in the totality of educational and life opportunities, not to see him merely as a student of history, mathematics, or English. In fact, the counselor is the only person in the modern high school who has the time or the opportunity to plan the pupil's educational program as a well-balanced goalward-moving unit. Thus, we might say that the counselor's big job is seeing through Johnny and seeing Johnny through.

If that is the job, how shall the counselor spend his time?

The counselor should spend much of his time advising with pupils, their parents, and their teachers. Since he cannot do this alone, he must stimulate and train the teaching corps to help him. He must guard against spending a disproportionate amount of time on the so-called "misfit." The whole student body is made up of misfits, because each member is, in his totality, an incomparable and an incomprehensible personality confronted by a system. The so-called "misfits" are the ones that make the most disturbance about it, and, by that method, get the intelligent and sympathetic guidance to which all are entitled.

The counselor should spend whatever time is necessary for giving tests, computing quotients, etc., but he should keep in mind the fact that tests are a means to an end, and the end is the setting up of the best possible educational and life-career program for Johnny. Dividing the school into X, Y, and Z groups is not done to make it easy for the teacher or to make the percentage of failure look better. We believe that proper grouping (call it X, Y, Z, or what you like) will make the teacher's work more effective, will reduce failure, and will do many other good things; but all these come to pass simply because the individual pupil has been studied and adjusted by means of tests.

The counselor should spend considerable time getting acquainted with the life of the community, its traditions, its pitfalls. He should learn as much as possible about the vocational opportunities in the locality and should investigate all other training programs offered by the public schools and other agencies, such as private schools and corporations. He should know the requirements for entrance to institutions of higher learning, and he should make sure that pupils going in that direction are able to meet the requirements.

The counselor should keep simple but adequate personnel records but should recognize that record-keeping is a means to an end, and the end is the accumula-

tion of knowledge about the individual which can be passed on to the next higher stage in our educational system, or to the vocational-placement office, or to the employer in case he wants it.

The counselor should make every effort to prevent the unceremonious elimination of pupils when they pass beyond the compulsory-attendance age. Every pupil has the right to a personal and official "Good-bye and Godspeed" whether he graduates or just drops out. The counselor should make sure that he gets it.

The foregoing paragraphs have dealt with the general principles underlying counselorship. There are certain specific tasks awaiting us, the doing of which brings forth many problems. One of these is dividing the pupils into approximately equal ability groups. The method of doing this has been set up in previous years, and, until we can devise a better one, it should be followed. To be successful, the grouping idea must have the support of the teaching corps. In securing this support, the counselor has a definite responsibility, although the principal is the authoritative factor. Selecting teachers for the lower groups is particularly important and gives the counselor opportunity to display his tact and selling power. Explaining the purpose of grouping to parents who question the placement of their children is a delicate problem which must be shared by both principal and counselor.

Readjusting pupils when they are found to be wrongly placed is a duty which requires very close co-operation between counselor and teacher. Often the pupils who are placed in the higher groups lose no opportunity to boast of their assumed superiority, much to the distress of the lower pupils. The changing of such attitudes is a challenge to the counselor.

Equal-ability grouping will not eliminate failure. The failures offer the counselor an opportunity to practice his art to the utmost. Keen individual diagnosis of failures will bring to light unsuspected conditions in the personal and home life of the pupils and may give us vital information about our own shortcomings as teachers and administrators. In a word, there are many problems for the counselor. Here are some questions, the consideration of which should furnish us material for many conferences:

1. What are the factors making for early elimination of pupils from our school system?
2. What is the relation (a) between intelligence and occupational choice, (b) between intelligence and occupational success, (c) between intelligence and effective citizenship?
3. What information should be automatically "passed on" (a) from the elementary school to the junior high school, (b) from the junior high school to the senior high school, (c) from the elimination point in the system to the part-time school authorities? How can we get this done efficiently?
4. How many graduates of your school go to senior high school or to college, as the case may be?
5. Would you like to select fifty or a hundred entering students this year and follow them through school and into adult life?

6. How many of your entering class last year are back this year? Do you know where the missing ones can be found?
7. How can you secure the intelligent co-operation of parents in the problems of guidance.
8. In what ways does the guidance problem differ between junior and senior high schools?

ADULT EDUCATION

In recent months unusual interest has been manifested in the problems and possibilities of adult education. During the month of October, at a meeting held in the city of Cleveland under the auspices of the Carnegie Corporation, an association was organized, the purpose of which is indicated by its name—the American Association for Adult Education.

This new association aims to find ways of training adults in the advantageous use of the hours which are not spent in productive industry. Ways are also to be sought for training adults in the methods of securing practical information, such information as the Danes have provided for their people in the folk colleges and as the Department of Agriculture of this country provides in the agricultural extension courses which are made possible by the appropriations under the Smith-Lever Act.

The work of the association is to be put on a scientific basis, as indicated by the following announcement.

In connection with its general preliminary inquiry in the field of adult education, the Carnegie Corporation has financed a three-year study of the psychology of adult education. The study is being conducted by the Institute of Educational Research of Teachers College, Columbia University, with the co-operation of Stanford University.

Among the agencies which are especially interested in adult education are the public libraries. The American Library Association issues a magazine which is entitled, *Adult Education and the Library*. A recent issue describes some of the ways in which libraries in various centers have attempted to be of service to adult readers. One example of the extent to which public libraries are providing educational facilities may be quoted. The library of the city of Cincinnati has organized a readers' bureau, the activities of which are described as follows:

The work of the bureau might be said to include three major activities: advice to readers on books and general reading, assistance to study clubs and

classes in the preparation of programs and in the selection of books, and the preparation of courses of reading for individuals.

Considerable attention is given to readers who wish to confer about books and general reading with a person who is versed in literature. These consultations concern such matters as the merits or contents of a particular book, books representative of a certain class of literature or an author, books for gifts, and books representative of different opinions on controversial subjects.

Assistance to study clubs consists mainly of providing their representatives with selected outlines, programs, courses, and books and of giving suggestions concerning appropriate subjects and significant books. The adviser takes no responsibility for the outlining of programs, although on occasion she assists in matters of detail. Many club workers prefer to work at the table in the office of the bureau in order that they may consult the adviser from time to time. An idea of the amount of work done with study clubs may be gained by reference to the fact that during the months of May and June representatives of forty-six study clubs received assistance in the preparation of programs for the ensuing year.

Although the two types of service just mentioned require a great deal of time, the most serious attention is given to the preparation of organized courses of reading for those who wish to make a careful study of subjects of their own selection. Approximately one hundred readers were provided with courses during the first three months of the operation of the bureau.

ADMINISTRATION OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL. II

PAUL W. TERRY
University of North Carolina

TEACHER SPONSORS

The successful administration of an extensive program of extra-curriculum activities depends on the sympathetic and active co-operation of a large percentage of the members of the teaching staff. School officers who are convinced of the value of extensive programs are vitally interested in administrative plans which have been devised to encourage teachers to assume responsibilities of this kind. One of the most important questions in this connection concerns the percentage of the teachers who are serving as sponsors or coaches in the average school. One hundred and sixty-four of the schools which were included in this study answered this question. Fifty-four schools reported that from 75 to 100 per cent of the teachers are serving as sponsors; forty-three schools reported from 33 to 70 per cent; and sixty-seven schools reported from 10 to 30 per cent of the teachers engaged in this work. The position of the program of activities in the schools where at least 75 per cent of the teachers are intimately related to it is decidedly different from the position of the program in the schools where less than one-third of the teachers are taking part. In the former schools the offering of activities is expanded with respect to both volume and variety to as great an extent as the size of the faculty will permit. The advantages of organized social training are made available to a greater percentage of the pupils, and the individual pupil has a greater opportunity to find the special type of activity which will interest him most. More teachers are in a position to support the program with enthusiasm and to make intelligent suggestions for its improvement. Discontent among the teachers on the ground that some are carrying larger shares of the school's responsibilities than are others is reduced to a minimum. Schools which are fortunately situated with respect to

the foregoing factors are better prepared to return to the community annually large numbers of young people who have the advantages of superior training in the practical arts of citizenship.

Schools with enrolments of more than six hundred pupils tend to include smaller percentages of the teaching staff in extra-curriculum activities than do schools with fewer pupils. This contrast may be explained in part by the presence of several factors which are more characteristic of large schools than of small schools. Large schools tend to attract greater numbers of teachers with advanced training and specialized academic interests. Considerable numbers of teachers in such schools are assigned to special duties, such as department headships, educational advisories, clerical responsibilities, etc., to which their spare time is devoted. Because of these facts, many teachers are not interested in extra-curriculum activities, and others do not have time to assist in supervising them. Large schools, moreover, frequently include heterogeneous masses of pupils who are not well acquainted with one another and who do not readily form organized social groups. Many pupils in the cities devote a substantial percentage of their free hours to the earning of their living expenses. Such pupils are able to take little, if any, part in extra-curriculum activities if a special period for such activities is not included in the daily time schedule. In a considerable number of cases schools with large enrolments have failed to add to their offerings a sufficient number of new and diversified organizations to keep pace with the increasing enrolment. When due account has been taken of these circumstances, however, one cannot escape the conclusion that the most fundamental difference between schools in which large majorities of the teachers are assisting with activities and others in which only small minorities co-operate lies in the attitude of principals and teachers toward work of this kind. The fact that a considerable number of large schools report more than three-fourths of their teachers as actively engaged in supervision of extra-curriculum activities supplies ample evidence that it is possible for large schools to organize extensive programs which depend for their success on the co-operation of practically the entire faculty.

Inquiry revealed the fact that seventy-six schools, or approximately one-third of the 231 schools reporting, employ one or more

members of the faculty to devote their full time to the supervision of extra-curriculum activities. A decided majority of such teachers are engaged in conducting physical education or athletic work. Besides these, there are eleven deans of girls, six music directors, a dean of boys, a class supervisor, and an expression teacher. Athletics, music, dramatics, and debate are the special interests around which organizations may be formed in sufficient number to warrant the employment of full-time supervisors. For the most part, organizations which are supervised in this way are allowed to meet during the school day. In many cases credit toward graduation is granted. Such organizations, therefore, are recognized as being of practically equal importance with the subjects of study. The remaining organizations, and in many schools the athletic, music, and English expression organizations as well, are supervised by sponsors whose main work is teaching.

The dean of girls is frequently thought of as being profoundly interested in the organized social life of the school and as a valuable assistant to the principal in the supervision of such work. One might expect that the eleven schools which reported full-time deans of girls would prove to be superior to the average school with respect to administrative features which facilitate the conduct of the program of activities. An examination of the answers of these schools to other questions shows that such is not the case. In so far as time provisions, restrictive regulations, percentage of teachers co-operating, and record systems are concerned, these eleven schools are not superior to the average school. There is much other business and there are many aspects of extra-curriculum work other than those of an administrative character with which deans of girls may well occupy their time. The fact remains, however, that they do not appear to have made themselves felt to a marked extent in so far as promoting certain desirable administrative features is concerned.

Teachers are not different from other people in that the work which they do is determined in large part by the compensations which they receive. Teachers do the work of the classroom with a view to obtaining superior standing in the principal's annual rating or with the hope of winning promotions to department headships, assistant principalships, etc., or with the expectation of earning in-

creases in salary. These and other rewards are made available to teachers because administrative officers feel that thereby better work will be encouraged. The extra-curriculum side of the teacher's work needs special attention from this standpoint. In the case of many activities the duties of supervision are both difficult and burdensome. The average teacher feels that he has as much work in the subjects of study as he ought to be expected to do or as he can do well. The term "extra-curriculum" implies that work of this kind is thought of

TABLE I
METHODS OF REWARDING SPONSORS OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Method	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Special consideration given to activities in principal's annual rating of teacher's work	149	65
Public expression of appreciation of teacher's work: teachers' meetings, school paper, annual, annual report to board of education, city papers, etc	24	10
Additional salary	124	54
Reduction of teaching load one or more periods a day	120	52
Relief from other work, such as roll call, advisory duties, committees, etc	15	6
Other methods:		
Recommendation for advance in salary	13	6
Special commendatory report to superintendent	9	4
Promotion to department headship or assistant principals	8	3
Presents	5	2

as something in addition to the "regular" duties. Only within recent years, moreover, has the program of activities become so extensive that teachers who spontaneously volunteer without encouragement by the administration are not numerous enough to do the work. The problem at the present time is one of finding methods which may be used systematically to win the sympathetic co-operation of a decided majority of the teachers.¹

Methods of obtaining co-operation were reported by practically all the schools included in the investigation. An analytical classification of the answers is presented in Table I. The most popular is the simple method of giving special consideration to the teacher's work

¹ For an extended discussion of the supervision of extra-curriculum activities from the point of view of the teacher, see the chapter on "Teacher Co-operation" in Part II of the 1926 yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

in this field in the principal's annual rating. The method of expressing public appreciation of the teacher's services is used in a surprisingly small number of schools. Teachers, like people in other walks of life, value commendation of this kind and often become resentful when it is not forthcoming. In slightly more than a majority of the schools use is made of additional salary and of reduction of the

TABLE II
ACTIVITIES FOR WHICH TEACHERS ARE GIVEN REDUCTION
IN TEACHING LOAD OR ADDITIONAL SALARY

Activity	Number of Schools Which Make Reduction in Teaching Load	Number of Schools Which Give Additional Salary
Athletics.....	72	83
Dramatics.....	50	10
Debate.....	42	12
School newspaper.....	39	4
School annual.....	16
Dean of girls.....	15	6
Class organizations.....	15
Musical organizations.....	15	6
Literary societies.....	7
Social activities.....	4
School treasury.....	4	4
Honor society.....	2
Savings bank.....	1
Hi-Y.....	1
Y.W.C.A.....	1
Total.....	284	131

teaching load. These are the most tangible and substantial methods reported, and it is significant to observe that they are used in a sufficient number of cases to warrant the conclusion that they are both effective and legitimate means of attaining the desired end.

The activities for the supervision of which allowance is made in the teaching load or additional salary is given are listed in Table II. It is clear that athletic activities and organizations which are devoted to the cultivation of some highly specialized use of oral or written expression are most frequently recognized in these substantial ways. Although the last ten activities are not reported by many schools, the significant fact is that these activities have been developed in certain schools to a point where the administration

deems it advisable to take special measures to compensate teachers for the work which their supervision entails. It should be observed that compensation in the form of reduction of the teaching load is used in the case of twice as many organizations as is compensation in the form of additional salary.

SUPERVISION OF FINANCES

Effective supervision of the finances of extra-curriculum activities in the modern high school is an administrative problem of no mean proportions. The amount of money which is handled annually is amazingly large. The total sums that were collected by indi-

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS ON THE BASIS OF RECEIPTS
FROM ATHLETIC AND NON-ATHLETIC ACTIVITIES*

Receipts	Non-athletic Activities	Athletic Activities
\$ 0-\$ 999.....	61	58
1,000- 1,999.....	52	63
2,000- 2,999.....	23	30
3,000- 3,999.....	8	11
4,000- 4,999.....	13	12
5,000- 5,999.....	5	10
6,000- 6,999.....	4	3
7,000- 7,999.....	3	1
8,000- 8,999.....	1	3
9,000- 9,999.....
10,000- 10,999.....	3	2
11,000- 19,999.....	4	1
20,000- 39,999.....	2	1
40,000- 79,999.....	2
Total.....	181	195

* The median receipts were as follows: non-athletic activities, \$1,164; athletic activities, \$1,465. The interquartile range was as follows: non-athletic activities, \$657-\$2,775; athletic activities, \$697-\$2,331.

vidual schools included in this study range as high as \$78,000. The median school collected a total of \$2,967. The median amount collected from athletics was \$1,465; the median amount collected from non-athletic activities was \$1,164 (Table III). One hundred and twenty of 181 schools received more than \$1,000 from the non-athletic activities alone, and 137 of 195 schools received more than that sum from athletics. Only fourteen of the entire number of

schools collected less than \$1,000 from athletic and non-athletic sources combined. Fifty-four schools received more than \$5,000 from these two sources.

The data which are presented in Table IV show that the receipts are determined, in large part, by the size of the school. Schools of less than 500 enrolment reported median receipts of \$1,646; schools with more than 500 pupils but less than 1,000 pupils received a median of \$3,250; schools of more than 1,500 pupils but less than 3,000 pupils received a median of \$7,875. At this point the atten-

TABLE IV
MEDIAN RECEIPTS FROM ALL ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS OF
DIFFERENT SIZES

Number of Pupils Enrolled	Number of Schools*	Median Receipts
0- 499.....	83	\$1,646
500- 999.....	46	3,250
1,000-1,499.....	16	5,000
1,500-1,999.....	19	5,375
2,000-2,499.....	10	7,500
2,500-2,999.....	5	7,875

* Two schools reported greater enrolments than 3,000.

tion of the reader should be called to the fact that the particular organizations which are included in the program of activities and certain local conditions constitute factors of equal importance with size of enrolment in determining the amount of income. The largest receipts were reported by schools in cities of some size where high-school football games are regarded as major social events and are attended by enormous crowds of spectators.

Under these circumstances it is not surprising that practically all the schools replying reported systematic plans of accounting for the money received. The fact that large numbers of the schools were able to report athletic and non-athletic incomes separately and to give them in exact figures, as many did, affords convincing evidence of the care with which the accounts are kept. Custody of the funds is in the hands of faculty members with the exception of a few schools where an agent of the board of education or of the superintendent's office is responsible. Many principals handle the money themselves. In a great majority of the cases, however, the money is under the

control of teachers, and members of the commercial department are more frequently selected than are others. There is a distinct tendency to allow the pupils to do as much of the work as they can and thus to obtain the advantages of experience in the handling of money in trust under competent direction.

RECORDS OF PARTICIPATION

Numerous occasions arise when the record of a pupil's participation in extra-curriculum activities can be used to advantage by the principal or members of his staff. Prospective employers often make inquiries concerning this side of a pupil's school career. Educational and vocational counselors employ such information in advising pupils with regard to the election of courses of study and the selection of vocations. The facts which are needed for an accurate determination of eligibility to membership in the honor society or which are employed in the enforcement of restrictive regulations may be found in the records. The adviser who is responsible for encouraging pupils to participate in activities and in the particular activities which will benefit them most can obtain from the records the information which he needs. In view of these facts, one may assume that the kind of records that are used and the precision with which they are kept afford highly significant indications of the extent to which the administrative officers of a school appreciate the importance of organized social groups in the lives of adolescent boys and girls.

Seventy-six of the 231 schools reported that formal records are kept, and twenty schools complied with the request to send samples of the forms that are used. In fifty-five schools the records are filed in the principal's office; the school annual serves the purpose in twelve cases. The minutes of organizations are used in six schools, and in two cases records are kept by organization sponsors.

Both temporary and permanent cards are employed. For temporary records use is made of the ordinary program or enrolment cards, adviser's report cards, and pass cards. In the case of the program or enrolment cards, the activities in which the pupil is participating are listed under the subjects of study and in the same columns, and on some of the blanks space is provided for the date and place of meetings. By the use of this blank the pupil may be located at

any time, whether in regular or extra-curriculum work; the extent and kind of his participation can be checked; and at the end of the year the data on this card may be transferred to a permanent office card. The adviser's report card provides space for a list of the important offices which a pupil holds and for statements with regard to the quality of performance, the amount of time given to the work, and recommendations concerning the number of credit points to be awarded. This card is kept by the sponsors of the major activities, provides the data on the basis of which distinctions are awarded, and is filed in the principal's office when the work of the organization is completed. The pass card is carried by the pupil himself and is accepted by teachers as evidence that he is eligible to take part in the major activities. Space is provided for recording his marks at stated intervals, at which times sponsors or coaches call for the cards and eliminate participants whose records are unsatisfactory.

Permanent records of activities are kept on personnel cards, adviser's information cards, office cards, and honor-society record forms. Each of these cards includes memoranda concerning the pupil's entire school career, and, for the most part, they are preserved in durable files and are available permanently for consultation. On the first three cards entries concerning extra-curriculum work constitute only a part of the total amount of information that is set down. The space which is provided for such activities includes in some cases only a few blank lines, on which only the briefest data may be noted. In other cases ample space is provided for remarks concerning the quality of the pupil's performance in the activities in which he has engaged, his aptitude for such work, etc. Several cards include a list of the school's activities, with space in columns toward the right in which entries of participation may be made by semesters. Each of the three permanent records has the advantage of assembling on one card a large amount of information concerning several aspects of the pupil's life both in and out of school. The efforts of principals and their assistants to advise with pupils, parents, and employers concerning important personal and vocational problems are facilitated to a material extent by convenient access to records of this kind. At least one of these permanent record cards is included in the office equipment of standard high schools. Nor is it difficult

for the principals to modify these cards in such a way as to provide the space that is needed for records of extra-curriculum activities.

Honor-society record cards are concerned exclusively with data which are used in the selection of members of honor societies. The form of such cards is determined by the standards of membership. In some cases they are very simple and provide space only for noting by semesters the organizations which a pupil has joined and the official positions which he has held. Provision is also made for a brief record of scholarship. Several schools that have not yet selected a card for permanent use are experimenting with record forms on mimeographed sheets. More pretentious forms are found, in which space is provided for lists of the school's entire offering of activities. Major and minor activities are listed separately, and columns are provided for entries by semesters. A description is given of the quantitative point values of various activities and scholarship grades. Additional space is provided for entering scholarship point values by semesters and yet more space for entering composite scores that represent scholarship and activities combined. At the bottom of these columns totals of the composite scores are entered, and on the basis of these scores members are selected.

Although its main purpose is merely to supply the data that are needed by honor societies, a record card of this kind may be employed to advantage in combination with a permanent office card or personnel card to make available a complete description of the pupil's school career. A system of several cards in different files, however, is more expensive to maintain and less convenient to use than is a single comprehensive card. Moreover, records are kept on honor-society cards of only exceptionally able pupils who are likely candidates for distinguished honors. If no other card is provided, no record is available of the extra-classroom work of more than three-fourths of the entire pupil population. It is not surprising, therefore, that the most common provision for extra-curriculum records is that of a certain amount of space on the permanent office card. Schools which do not keep records of activities at the present time but which desire to introduce such records probably will find that the simplest and most practicable plan is to make the slight changes that may be necessary on the permanent office card.

THE CREATIVE-WRITING CLASS IN THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

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Every high school considers that part of its work is the teaching of English composition, or the development in the pupil of power in written expression. Written English is of two kinds, essential and creative. For the utilitarian purposes of necessary communication in business and social relations, everyone needs to know the conventions of good writing. These conventions can be learned and their use can become habitual within the inevitable limitations set up by intelligence and will. After clarity is achieved, the value of the great mass of practical writing must depend on the value of the ideas conveyed. Distinctly another kind of composition is the writing for pleasure—the pleasure of the writer and the pleasure of the reader. This writing or the reading of such writing is an end, not a means—an end which is aesthetic satisfaction. The subject matter may be of no more practical moment than the observation of shades of color or of wave rhythms on a rocky shore.

In general, classes in composition confuse these two kinds of writing. Pupils are taught principles of usage and are then asked to write descriptions, character sketches, or stories for the purpose of practice or as a means of correcting their habits in the employment of these principles. The "themes," as they are usually called, are then criticized largely according to the standards of accurate usage, but often, to the bewilderment of the pupils, they are also judged by canons of taste which obtain in the field of art. The boys and girls are constantly urged to be original and to use their imaginations. From this type of classroom procedure disorderly and distressed thinking may arise. The pupils who have a native gift for expression or for pleasure in the use of words as art material are irritated by the emphasis on mechanics. The pupils who have no interest in the writing of descriptions and narrations find such work

extremely distasteful, but this is not because the pupils have nothing to say. They may be so intensely interested in the ideas which they are anxious to convey that they do not care to give any more than necessary attention to the manner of presentation; or they may like to organize and express in clear relation facts and ideas which they have assimilated. In the field of artistic writing, however, the pupils are not conscious creators or interpreters of beauty, and insistence on such creation may kill a latent or growing appreciation of what others have produced. On the other hand, just as some pupils are interested in making radios or in making an orderly accumulation of reasons for the explanation of some phenomenon, just as others find pleasure in painting or modeling or house-planning, so some pupils enjoy using words as the material for the projection of their imagination.

It is worth while for the happiness of the individuals and for the harmony of society that this interest should be fostered, for language comes nearer being a universal means of communication for the spirit of man than does any other art medium. For giving direction and encouragement to pupils with such an interest, a class in creative writing was formed in the University High School of the University of Chicago in the second semester of the school year 1922-23.

As it was believed that such an interest is natural and as it was hoped that it was of sufficient vigor in the University High School to respond to an offer of help, the class was formed partly for the purpose of determining whether or not this interest was strong enough to justify the use of a teacher-hour the following year in an already crowded program. Word was given out by the English instructors that a class would be opened for helping those pupils who were interested in writing as an art and that pupils would be admitted who could meet the following requirements: (1) They must be recommended by some teacher or offer some other reasonable evidence of ability and interest. (2) They must be strong enough in their regular work to assume an additional directed activity. (3) They must have completed at least one year of high-school English. Approximately thirty responses came from those who were eligible. As the programs of several pupils could not be

adjusted to the time of the class meeting and as a few who had entered from curiosity dropped out, about eighteen pupils were left who were anxious to have help and were willing to meet one hour a week without receiving credit. Attendance was voluntary, and no credit was given, but arrangements were made with the English instructors so that pupils doing much creative writing could be excused from some of the written work required in literature classes.

The group held fifteen meetings. The first hour or two was devoted to giving some plan and direction to the work. The teacher discussed with each pupil the kind of writing in which he was particularly interested and tried to find out the type of assistance he most needed. A large number of books which might be of help for reference or inspiration were placed on the shelves of the classroom. These were books of technique, expositions of literary types, books of criticism, collections of standard examples of various styles of writing, a few good anthologies, and some manuals of usage.

Thereafter, the time was used as follows: (1) Certain subjects related to writing were discussed by the teacher. (2) Some hours were spent in writing, with opportunity for conference with the teacher. (3) The work of members of the class was read by the teacher for the sake of obtaining criticism from the group and for the training of critical ability. (4) The pupils spent time in reading whenever they were not eager to write or when they found themselves in need of help which they could get from the books.

The distribution of the time among these activities depended on the changing situation. Some talks were given on subjects chosen arbitrarily; some were given in answer to questions that arose during class criticism. The writing periods were determined by the amount of writing under way and by the stages which it had reached. The reading days occurred when sufficient representative material had accumulated.

The subjects presented by the teacher were as follows: (1) the reasons for writing; (2) sources of material for creative writing; (3) the suitability of certain types of literature for conveying certain kinds of ideas or emotions; (4) literary form—the development of some important types and their present trends; (5) the primary

principles of versification. The types of literary form discussed were poetry, short story, novel, drama, and essay. Because of the pupils' unusual interest in poetry, one hour was used in reading and discussing modern verse.

After a considerable body of writing by the class had been read and criticized by the group, the pupils naturally wished to extend the circle of readers. Various types of publication were investigated by the pupils, and, finally, a committee was elected to plan a booklet, which should contain some of the best representative work done by the class. This booklet, which was called *Fennel Stalks*, was published in June, 1923. The cost of the publication and the fact that it had to be financed by sale among the pupils of the school at fifteen cents a copy limited the material to poetry and very short prose sketches. The booklet is representative, however, as most of the pupils were interested in writing verse. With only a little help in technical matters, the pupils themselves made up the copy and took it to the printer. The choice and the arrangement of the twenty-seven selections from the work of twelve pupils represent their own standards of taste. The makeup, furthermore, was submitted to the entire class for suggestion and approval. This publication completed the work of the semester.

Some of the results which were apparent from the fifteen hours of work were:

1. The class proved that a number of pupils in the school had a vigorous and sustained interest in creative writing wholly aside from any desire for credit.
2. Curiosity and interest in creative writing were stimulated throughout the school. The sale of three hundred copies of *Fennel Stalks* offers the best proof of this. From time to time pupils not enrolled visited the class or sent in contributions to be read for criticism.
3. Those in the class showed improvement in their standards of taste and a decided increase in power of definition in criticism. The first comments were little more than expressions of approval or disapproval. Toward the close of the term, if one pupil made a criticism without illustration or definition, he was questioned by some other member of the group.

4. A healthy attitude toward writing as a natural means of artistic expression was developed. The teacher considers this one of the most valuable results, as cloistered art becomes ingrowing and morbid, and repression of the creative impulse causes great unhappiness among young people. This attitude was shown by the freedom in giving and taking criticism and by the enthusiasm with which the pupils advertised and sold their own work.

5. A small but practical amount of definite information about writing and publication was gained by the members of the class.

As in all work which has to do primarily with emotional content and the creative spirit, the most important results and perhaps the most serious errors can never be known either to teacher or to pupil. We seldom know of the type of value existent in a case that came by chance to the attention of the teacher. One pupil, in filling out an application blank a year later for entrance to the University of Chicago, was required to answer a question the substance of which was, "What has given you the most pleasure in your school life?" Her answer was, "The success of *Fennel Stalks*, a school publication of which I was an editor."

In the school year 1923-24 the course in creative writing was given a place in the curriculum as a four-hour class carrying full credit. The requirements for entrance were practically the same as for the preceding year. Although more than twenty pupils applied for admission, programs could be arranged for only twelve. By additions through the year, the enrolment finally reached fifteen. The members of the class differed widely in ability and in preparation for the work. There were second-year pupils who had done very little writing but were anxious to try; there were fourth-year pupils who had been interested in writing for several years. A few who had been in the non-credit class the year before enrolled. These differences, as well as the intention of the course, made most of the activity and its direction an individual matter. A general plan of work, however, was established. Effort was distributed among the four days as follows: one day for discussion by the teacher or for class exercises, two days for individual writing and conferences, one day for the reading of individual production for the sake of getting class criticism.

The discussions by the teacher were intended to open lines of thought or to present brief surveys which might be followed by reading. They made no pretense at being comprehensive in any line. Types of literature were discussed from the point of view of historical development, purpose, technique, and material. Selections were read in illustration of points made, and foundations were laid for standards of judgment. The greatest part of the work was the actual writing. While, in general, the type of writing done followed the type of literature being presented by the teacher, this was not necessarily the case. The pupils were encouraged to try different forms, but no demands were made so long as they had plans of their own. All except two or three members of the class always had more plans ahead than they could carry out. During the writing period the members of the class were free to move about, to confer with the teacher, to converse with other pupils about their plans, or to read if they had nothing to write. At times the entire class was silently at work, while at other times the tone was distinctly conversational. While the pupils might appear to be wasting time in the latter case, both kinds of periods had their values. The opportunities for informal and animated conversation about creative writing or even loosely in connection with it are unfortunately rare in high-school life. If art is to be a healthy, normal expression of life, we must learn to live with it in everyday clothes. We must learn not to speak in hushed voices, and so those minutes here and there that were spent in raillery and laughter about the "masterpieces" that were under way in the classroom were perhaps as valuable as any other part of the time.

The fourth day of the week was especially enjoyed, as each pupil liked to hear his own work read, as well as to have a chance to talk about the work of the others. In these hours opportunity arose for building up standards of judgment. During these hours more than during any of the others, taste was changed or developed. Young people who enter a class of this kind are inclined to be uncritical in their judgments at first. They can tell what they like and what they do not like, but they cannot give reasons for their judgments. Through discussion of what is expected from a certain type of literature and through measurements of their work according to

these standards, the pupils gradually come to look at a piece of work critically rather than submit to obvious impressions. It is possible that the pupil has his own taste sharpened more by hearing his own work criticized than in any other way, for, although he may laugh when some of his awkward, trite, or lazy phrasing is criticized, the consciousness of guilt sinks deep. Often the pupils can give much better suggestions for reconstruction than can the teacher, because their outlook and sympathy are nearer those of the writer. Because

TABLE I
MATERIAL PRODUCED IN ONE YEAR BY A CLASS IN CREATIVE WRITING

Pupil	Number of Essays	Number of Prose Sketches	Number of Poems	Number of Stories	Number of Plays	Number of Reviews	Total
A*	12	8	1	2	6	29
B.	2	4	25	3	3	1	38
C.	6	6	4	3	3	5	21
D.	6	10	6	3	1	26	
E.	8	28	2	2	2	42	
F.	8	1	8	1	18	
G*	3	6	1	10	
H.	10	5	3	4	22
I.	12	10	8	2	1	2	35
J*	4	10	3	17
K*	2	4	6	3	15
L.	5	15	3	2	4	29
M.	4	12	2	1	1	20
N.	1	4	15	1	21
O*	5	30	3	38
Class.....	48	102	149	40	12	30	381

* This pupil was enrolled in the course for only two periods a week.

of the keenness of attention which develops sensitivity to some of the ways in which art may be outraged by expression, these pupils will become better readers as well as better writers.

While it is practically impossible to tabulate the progress of the pupils in such a class, it is interesting to note the amount and the variety of writing done by the group during the year. Such a summary as that shown in Table I is only slightly suggestive as to quantity, while quality and progress have to be taken into consideration in every case if the extent of the output is to be judged. For example, Pupil F does not make a remarkable showing in the summary, but his output was more than twenty thousand words

written, re-written, and typewritten. In addition, he illustrated his works with fifteen full-page ink drawings and water-color paintings. Pupil G, one of the two-hour-a-week members of the class, seems to have done little in quantity, but one of his poems was a long epic based on Russian legends. Its production involved the study of Russian life and legends and a study of meters suitable for a long epic poem. About 150 lines of this project were finished. The author expected to continue work on it during his leisure time in the summer. A few lines will show the care with which it was written.

On the morning of the third day, a rumbling came out of the North,
As of distant, angry thunder; from the moist earth issued forth
The roar of an earthquake's tremblings; the river suddenly turned
With a movement of agonized torture; the deepest waters churned
As a sign of angry defiance, and Cloudfall, Ilya's steed,
His companion in all his adventures, looked northward and raised his
head.

Pupil A has only a small quantity of work to his credit, but he re-wrote some of his essays as many as six times; and in the place of quantity of production, he has marked progress to show. His first work, although rich in ideas, abounded in incomplete sentences, comma blunders, dangling participles, and confused references. His work is now fairly free from such errors.

In this fashion the work of each pupil has been a matter of individual output and progress. No assignments were made unless they were requested or unless a pupil wanted to do a certain kind of work for the purpose of helping himself in some particular way. The pupils were influenced largely by one another. When one person started a play, usually two or three others began plays also. Often work was stimulated by requests for co-operation with other departments. A stanza was added to the school song by one pupil. Several in the class wrote words for music. Several wrote regularly for the high-school daily and also wrote for the high-school annual. The senior-class poem was written by a member of the group.

By the beginning of the second semester a large amount of material of various kinds had accumulated, and naturally this group also turned to the idea of publication, since there is no complete satisfaction in creative writing until the author sees his work in print so that his own small world at least can read. This is surely

a healthy attitude, for unless a person is to become artistically egocentric he must look upon writing as communication. If desire for publication is strong enough, ways can be found by an active group of high-school pupils even when no financial help is given. The class elected a staff for a proposed magazine and set about finding a way to publish it. The pupils found that they could have an eight-page magazine printed if they could sell three hundred copies at five cents each. The first issue appeared in February. It contained an editorial, the first instalment of a continued story, five prose sketches, a narrative poem, a sonnet, four other short lyrics, three short stories, a review of a play, a review of a new book, and a page of humorous miscellanies. The choice and the arrangement of the material were left entirely to the editors, but in preparation for their work a few days were spent in examining magazines and in discussing the makeup of a literary journal. Everyone in the class planned a makeup.

The editorial that appeared in the first issue will show the attitude of the class toward the undertaking.

Some years ago University High published a monthly magazine, known as the *Midway*. Since its expiration there has been nothing of this type which has sufficiently expressed the literary mind of the school. The Writers' Class has undertaken the responsibility of performing such a task. We realize our deficiencies but feel that the combined energies of the class can overcome these obstacles to a great extent and make this paper a worth-while and successful publication, expressing those ideals for which our school is noted.

The magazine received the enthusiastic support of the school and was able to publish three more numbers during the semester. The pupils doubled the size and the price of the third issue and still were able to pay expenses.

A summary of the contents of the four issues of the magazine is presented in Table II. The output represents the work of twenty-nine different pupils, fourteen of whom were not members of the class.

Further evidence of the interest which the school took in the magazine came at the end of the year in a plan, proposed by the pupils without the advice or knowledge of a teacher, to start a literary publication the next year, managed by a board of editors

drawn from the school at large. This was to be an organ of creative expression for the entire school. That the plan was a normal growth and an extension of the class project and not antagonistic to it was evidenced by the fact that the board of editors chosen consisted largely of former members of the class. This plan was later modified, as the publications decided to merge in a weekly paper with a literary page. This page was edited by members of the creative-writing class.

TABLE II
CONTENTS OF FOUR ISSUES OF SCHOOL MAGAZINE

Issue	Number of Poems	Number of Stories	Number of Prose Sketches	Number of Continued Stories	Number of Reviews	Number of Editorials	Number of Humorous Verses	Number of Humorous Prose Selections
1.....	6	3	5	1	2	1	4	3
2.....	8	4	2	1	6	1
3.....	19	2	9	1	1	2	5	1
4.....	34	13	4	1	6	3
Total	67	5	31	2	9	5	21	8

The next year the class was to some degree a center for the publications, as most of the editors were members of it. They were allowed to leave the classroom and work in their offices whenever they thought this advisable and whenever they were not needed to participate in group activities. The privilege was not ill used. On the contrary, much more work was done voluntarily than could have been asked for in connection with the course.

During the school year 1924-25 the class met five times a week and thus was able to add new activities. The most important of these were oral reports on trips to bookstores and newspaper plants and on phases of the technique of writing or some field of literature viewed from the writer's angle. Some of the reports were on the following subjects: "The Local-Color Story," "Imagist Poetry," "Newspaper Editorials," "Types of Humor," and "Modern Novelists." The more advanced pupils talked from thirty to fifty minutes, while the younger pupils talked from fifteen to twenty minutes. There was also even more correlation with the work of other departments.

As the type of pupils in such a class changes decidedly from one year to another, no units of work can be outlined. Even the major problems may differ somewhat with different groups, but there are a few major objectives which have remained constant in the work as it has been carried on in the University High School. These are (1) to present as many opportunities as possible for developing interests in life (for literature must grow from living), (2) to train the critical faculties so that the pupil may read with more appreciation and write with more sincerity, (3) to cultivate a healthy social attitude toward writing as well as to foster this activity as a means of individual expression, (4) to develop an especial interest in the production, sale, and collection of books, (5) to give pupils practical work with a publication which reaches readers of similar age and experience.

THE BUSINESS ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION COURSE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

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In the last few years many educators have considered the problem of bringing the high-school pupil into close contact with modern business in such a way that he may sense what men in business really do and realize something of the seriousness of life's work. The development of the science of business and the establishment of courses in business administration by many colleges and universities have paved the way for the introduction of a course of this kind in the high school.

Two years ago such a course was introduced in the English High School, Lynn, Massachusetts. In the beginning it was decided that high-school boys and girls are not old enough to be trained to be business experts and that three periods a week do not provide sufficient time to attempt such training. The course was developed as an information course, its purpose being to bring the pupils into actual contact with business and to give them some idea of business as it is conducted today, so that they might choose more intelligently the fields of endeavor they wished to enter and, when at last at work, might see more clearly their relation and that of their fellow-employees to the business as a whole.

The course dealt with three general topics: finance, production, and distribution. Under finance the pupil was familiarized with the ways in which capital is accumulated and with the methods employed by business men to obtain funds to conduct their businesses. The national bank, the trust company, the savings bank, the insurance company, the stock exchange, and the clearing house were studied in detail.

Manufacturing was emphasized under production. The development of factory management was traced from the time when factories were small and the boss knew everyone and directed everyone,

through the growth of fundamental principles, to the scientific management of today. Wage-payment plans were carefully investigated. The hiring and discharging of workmen and various plans for their adequate representation in solving the problems of the business were discussed.

Distribution or marketing, dealing with that phase of business which takes the goods produced and places them in the hands of the consumer, was considered last. The problem of the big manufacturer in selling his wares became the problem of the class. The parts played by the chain store, the department store, the specialty shop, and the mail-order house in the modern scheme of marketing were shown.

If taught from a textbook in the usual way, this course might become very dull and uninteresting, but this method was not followed at the English High School. A textbook was used and recitations were held, but that was not all. Reports on special topics were required of members of the class. Information for these reports was obtained through outside reading and in some cases by going directly to business houses.

During the year each pupil prepared a thesis based on a study of some firm which he had selected for investigation. To aid him in obtaining information, arrangements were made with the firm, whenever possible, to have the pupil spend a day or a half-day in actual observation of the business. In the selection of firms, nearly every phase of business was covered. If a thesis proved particularly interesting or contained valuable information, it was read to the class. In this way the facts secured by one pupil through personal investigation and actual contact became the property of all.

The last and perhaps the best means used to present the subject was to have business men tell the class about their work. Once a week prominent men, whose names appeared often in the daily paper, talked to the class about their own businesses. A broker gave a talk on the stock exchange. He told how on the exchange no written contracts are made, all business being transacted by word of mouth. The mere speaking of the words "sold" or "taken" closes a transaction which may involve millions and is irrevocably binding on both parties. This broker also took two pupils in the class to his

office in Boston and spent a large part of a day in showing them the stock exchange and a broker's business. The president of a national bank talked to the class twice, discussing the national bank and the federal-reserve system. The president of a trust company explained estates and trusts. The treasurer of a savings bank showed how money saved in his bank by the people of Lynn is loaned on mortgages which help to build homes, how a mortgage supplies the builder with funds to buy his material and to pay his workmen, how the workman pays the grocer part of his wages and puts a part in the savings bank, how the grocer uses a part of what he receives and saves a part, how each person uses a part and saves a part, until at the end of three months all the money loaned on the mortgage has returned to the bank in the form of savings and can be loaned again.

A factory superintendent spoke on factory management and factory planning. A wage expert explained the various wage-payment plans. The head of the employment department of a large factory explained how necessary it is that each employee be in the place best suited to him and how important is the consideration of physical characteristics. A short man should not be placed in a position requiring much reaching, as a job of this kind would be better for a tall man. A fat man, as we all know, does not take kindly to the climbing of a ladder or to running around but, seated at a desk, even though working at top speed, will smile serenely because he is comfortable and at peace with the world in general.

An occupational expert demonstrated tests which determine the natural aptitudes or fitness of applicants for positions. One of these, an observation test to determine one's natural aptitude for the position of inspector, is very interesting. A drawer containing several objects, such as a pencil, a large dictionary, an eraser, and a ruler, is opened. The applicant is told to observe carefully the articles in the drawer and their position. The drawer is closed. Some changes are made, and the applicant is asked to tell the changes. One person will note the slightest change. Another begins to realize vaguely that something is different only after more than half the contents of the drawer have been removed and even then cannot tell just what has happened. Obviously, the first person has a natural aptitude for inspection work, while the second might pass

an electric meter in which about half the wheels were missing. The tests used by one large manufacturing concern to determine clerical fitness and mechanical ability were given to some of the pupils in the presence of the class.

The architect who is building the new high school talked on factory and building construction. His talk was doubly interesting because he used the plans of the new high school for illustration.

A representative of a large department store, the assistant sales manager of a group of chain stores, the owner of a retail store, and a traveling salesman told the class how goods are placed on the market.

The benefits of this method of conducting the course are twofold. First, the realities of business are revealed to high-school boys and girls who are about to take up life's work. Second, business men, leaders in the community on whom education must now rely for its support, are brought into the classroom. For a time they take the place of the teacher. They have something to tell the boys and girls. They can tell it better than can anyone else because it is their life-work. After they have spoken, they are no longer strangers to the school. They go away with a kindly feeling toward boys and girls and have more interest in education because they have had a part in it. Their good will has been obtained, and the school authorities will find them more ready to give their support to other educational projects.

The following list of talks made by business men will give some idea of the variety of subjects covered.

1. "The Building of a Daily Paper" by a member of the staff of the *Daily Evening Item*, Lynn.
2. "The Publisher" by a member of the firm of Ginn and Company, Boston.
3. "The Savings Bank" by the treasurer of the Commonwealth Savings Bank, Lynn.
4. "The Textile Industry" by the assistant manager of the hosiery shop of the Ipswich Mills.
5. "The Trust Company" by the president of the Sagamore Trust Company, Lynn.
6. "The Stock Exchange" by the president of the Lynn Institution for Savings and a member of the Boston Stock Exchange.

7. "Insurance" by the vice-president of the Massachusetts Association of Insurance Agents.
8. "The National Bank" by the president of the National City Bank, Lynn.
9. "The Federal-Reserve System" by the president of the National City Bank, Lynn.
10. "The New England Telephone and Telegraph Company" by the business manager of the Lynn telephone exchange.
11. "The Organization of the General Electric Company" by an engineer at the River Works of the General Electric Company, Lynn.
12. "Management and Factory Planning" by the general superintendent of the West Lynn Works of the General Electric Company.
13. "Wage-Payment Plans" by the Bedeaux engineer of the General Electric Company.
14. "The Service Department" by the head of the department of industrial relations of the River Works of the General Electric Company.
15. "Occupational Tests" by an engineer of the General Electric Company.
16. "The Plan of Representation for Employees of the General Electric Company" by the person in charge of the department.
17. "The Employment Department" by the head of the employment department of the General Electric Company.
18. "Research Work" by an engineer from the department of physics of the Thomson Research Laboratory of the General Electric Company.
19. "Marketing the General Electric Company's Products" by a salesman of the General Electric Company.
20. "Types of Factory Construction" by the architect who is building the new high school.
21. "Marketing the Talking Machine" by the eastern representative of the Victor Talking Machine Company.
22. "The Chain Store" by the assistant sales manager of the Regal Shoe Company.
23. "The Department Store" by the employment superintendent of Wm. Filene's Sons Company, Boston.
24. "The Traveling Salesman" by the sales manager of the Croisett Shoe Company.
25. "Safety and Sanitation" by the head of the safety department of the General Electric Company.
26. "The Meat-packing Industry" by the district manager of Swift and Company.
27. "Railroading" by the general agent of the Boston and Maine Railroad.
28. "The Specialty Shop" by the proprietor of a stationery store.

At first, the teacher will find this course very hard to conduct because he must familiarize himself with so many things which are

new and strange to him in his profession. Gradually, he will obtain a fund of information which will be beneficial to him, and his contact with business men should help him professionally.

Other high schools may have courses of this kind which are more successful. When the dean of the school of business of one of the large universities was told that at the English High School, Lynn, Massachusetts, a course of this kind was being conducted successfully, he replied, "If it is, it is the only high school in the United States that has been able to do this." We do not claim that this statement is true, but we know that the course has been a success. The pupils have learned many things. The personal contact in the classroom with men actually engaged in doing things has made the course more real and has changed the pupils' outlook on life's work. As one pupil said, "When a busy man takes his time to talk to us, we cannot help but feel more keenly the responsibility of making good."

PUPIL REACTION TO SCHOOL REPORTS. II

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SOME ITEMS THAT PUPILS WANT MARKED

This section presents the findings for the portion of the questionnaire which reads as follows:

Make a cross after each of the following items that you would like to have marked on your report:

- Preparation of work
- Attention
- Reliability
- Self-control
- Attitude toward study
- Evidence of leadership
- Conduct (deportment)
- Scholarship
- Rank in class for each subject

These items were used because they were urged by a committee of graduate students in a university class in secondary-school administration as the most desirable items to be marked on a high-school pupil's report. The results therefore provide a comparison of pupil and teacher preference regarding the items in question. They obviously do not indicate all the items which pupils might suggest if they were given the opportunity.

Table I shows the preferences expressed. The column headed "Composite" indicates that 65.1 per cent of the pupils expressed a desire to have "preparation" marked on their reports, etc. A study of the table reveals some interesting facts. In no school does the ranking of the several items agree entirely with the composite ranking; the instances of agreement vary from five in the case of the Eastern High School to none at all in the case of the Lincoln School. Apparently, the preferences are to a great extent responses to elements in the school environment to which the pupils are accustomed. Considering the rankings assigned by the boys and by

PUPIL REACTION TO SCHOOL REPORTS

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TABLE I
RANK OF ITEMS THAT PUPILS WOULD LIKE TO HAVE MARKED ON THEIR REPORTS

Rank	Eastern High School	DeWitt Clinton High School	Julia Richman High School	Lincoln School	Maury High School	Bayonne High School	Boys	Girls	Composite
1.....	Conduct (68.0 per cent)	Rank (65.4 per cent)	Preparation (71.2 per cent)	Rank (70.0 per cent)	Attention (61.7 per cent)	Preparation (60.6 per cent)	Preparation* (69.1 per cent)	Preparation* (65.1 per cent)	Preparation* (65.1 per cent)
2.....	Attention (67.4 per cent)	Scholarship (63.3 per cent)	Attention (68.1 per cent)	Preparation (66.7 per cent)	Rank (60.2 per cent)	Scholarship (74.4 per cent)	Attention* (65.4 per cent)	Attention* (61.7 per cent)	Attention (61.7 per cent)
3.....	Attitude (64.6 per cent)	Preparation (59.8 per cent)	Scholarship (65.2 per cent)	Scholarship (53.3 per cent)	Attitude (57.1 per cent)	Attitude (67.2 per cent)	Attitude* (63.8 per cent)	Attitude* (61.1 per cent)	Attitude (61.1 per cent)
4.....	Rank (55.2 per cent)	Attitude (58.2 per cent)	Attitude (64.0 per cent)	Attitude (47.8 per cent)	Preparation (57.1 per cent)	Conduct (66.1 per cent)	Attitude (58.0 per cent)	Scholarship (61.0 per cent)	Rank (60.6 per cent)
5.....	Preparation (54.7 per cent)	Attention (53.7 per cent)	Rank (61.1 per cent)	Attention (45.6 per cent)	Reliability (45.9 per cent)	Attention (65.1 per cent)	Attention (57.6 per cent)	Rank (60.9 per cent)	Scholarship (60.5 per cent)
6.....	Reliability (44.8 per cent)	Self-control (43.7 per cent)	Reliability (50.1 per cent)	Reliability (23.3 per cent)	Scholarship (44.4 per cent)	Reliability (60.4 per cent)	Conduct* (47.0 per cent)	Conduct* (53.2 per cent)	Conduct (50.3 per cent)
7.....	Scholarship (41.4 per cent)	Conduct (39.7 per cent)	Conduct (55.8 per cent)	Conduct (20.0 per cent)	Conduct (37.6 per cent)	Self-control (43.8 per cent)	Self-control (43.8 per cent)	Reliability* (53.7 per cent)	Reliability (48.2 per cent)
8.....	Self-control (29.3 per cent)	Reliability (37.6 per cent)	Self-control (53.8 per cent)	Leadership (16.7 per cent)	Self-control (38.3 per cent)	Rank (47.9 per cent)	Reliability (43.2 per cent)	Self-control* (44.9 per cent)	Self-control (44.3 per cent)
9.....	Leadership (22.7 per cent)	Leadership (32.0 per cent)	Leadership (38.4 per cent)	Leadership (13.3 per cent)	Leadership (30.8 per cent)	Leadership (42.2 per cent)	Leadership* (33.2 per cent)	Leadership* (31.0 per cent)	Leadership (32.1 per cent)

*Agrees with composite ranking.

the girls, we find that the ranking of the girls agrees in seven cases with that in the composite column, while that of the boys agrees with the composite ranking in only three instances. What is more impressive, perhaps, is the fact that in six instances the boys and the girls ranked items precisely opposite. For example, the boys rated "rank" second, while the girls rated it fifth; the boys rated "attention" fifth, while the girls rated it second. There was doubtless a decided difference in the responses of the sexes, but there seems to be no justification for attributing the difference to sex alone.

In reality, just what items do the pupils want marked on their reports? The items which received the approval of not less than 50 per cent of the pupils are preparation, attention, attitude, rank, scholarship, and conduct, the order in which these items appear here indicating the order in which they are preferred.

Perhaps the most significant revelation of the responses is the fact that less than 50 per cent of the pupils would like to have reliability, self-control, and leadership marked. Table II shows that in four of the six schools less than 50 per cent of the pupils approved reliability and self-control; in each of the six schools leadership was approved by less than 50 per cent of the pupils. As "good citizenship" is one of the "seven objectives" of modern education, it would seem that the ranking of these particular items demands serious thought. The various social and intellectual levels represented by the pupils answering the questionnaire lead the writer to believe that a study of much broader scope than the present one would not be likely to change the relative positions of the items in question. If the tenability of this assumption be granted, it may well be asked, Are secondary-school pupils *vitally* interested in these three very fundamental qualities of a good citizen?

It is felt that the preferences discussed in this section have more than passing value for the following reasons. (1) The order of the items as they appear in the composite ranking has a low correlation with the order of their printing in the questionnaire. Only the first two items in the composite ranking hold the same positions that they did in the questionnaire, a reasonable indication that the pupils gave serious thought to the items selected. (2) The scheme for indicating the items approved is dependable, for a pupil who does

PUPIL REACTION TO SCHOOL REPORTS

TABLE II
EXTENT TO WHICH EACH ITEM WAS PREFERRED BY EACH SCHOOL

Rank	Preparation	Attention	Attitude	Scholarship	Rank	Conduct	Reliability	Self-Control	Leadership
1.	Bayonne (76.0 per cent)	Julia Richman (68.1 per cent)	Bayonne (67.2 per cent)	Bayonne (74.4 per cent)	Lincoln (70.0 per cent)	Eastern (68.0 per cent)	Bayonne (60.4 per cent)	Bayonne (58.3 per cent)	Bayonne (42.2 per cent)
2.	Julia Richman (71.2 per cent)	Eastern (67.4 per cent)	Eastern (64.6 per cent)	Julia Richman (65.2 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (65.4 per cent)	Bayonne (66.1 per cent)	Julia Richman (59.1 per cent)	Julia Richman (52.8 per cent)	Julia Richman (38.4 per cent)
3.	Lincoln (66.7 per cent)	Bayonne (65.1 per cent)	Julia Richman (64.0 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (63.3 per cent)	Julia Richman (61.1 per cent)	Julia Richman (55.8 per cent)	Maury (45.9 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (43.7 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (32.0 per cent)
4.	DeWitt Clinton (59.8 per cent)	Maury (61.7 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (58.2 per cent)	Lincoln (53.3 per cent)	Maury (60.2 per cent)	Eastern (44.8 per cent)	Maury (36.8 per cent)	Maury (30.8 per cent)	Clinton (22.7 per cent)
5.	Maury (57.1 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (53.7 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (53.7 per cent)	Maury (57.1 per cent)	Eastern (55.2 per cent)	Maury (37.6 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (37.6 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (37.6 per cent)	DeWitt Clinton (37.6 per cent)
6.	Eastern (54.7 per cent)	Lincoln (45.6 per cent)	Lincoln (47.8 per cent)	Eastern (41.4 per cent)	Bayonne (47.9 per cent)	Lincoln (20.0 per cent)	Lincoln (33.3 per cent)	Lincoln (13.3 per cent)	Lincoln (16.7 per cent)

not care enough about an item to check it cannot be much concerned about it. (3) The schools as individual institutions decidedly disagree in their rankings of the items.

In the light of the facts noted, the following conclusions appear to be reasonable.

1. It is hardly likely that any list of items would prove satisfactory for use on reports in all schools.

2. Certainly in the schools studied the qualities of reliability, leadership, and self-control do not make a very strong appeal to the pupils, a fact which may warrant the following interpretations. (a) Pupils in general do not have definite concepts of these qualities. (b) Pupils are indifferent to these qualities even when their concepts of them are definite; this interpretation is based on the fact that some of the schools studied are administered with the avowed purpose of inculcating these qualities in their pupils. If these interpretations are conjointly or singly verifiable, then there should be (1) a modification of class procedure and methods of teaching and (2) an enlargement and an enrichment of school activities so that high-school pupils may discover the desirability of these qualities, will crave their possession, and may have numerous opportunities for developing them.

PUPILS' OPINIONS OF THE VALUE OF SCHOOL REPORTS AS NOW ADMINISTERED

The questions considered in this section were asked in order to obtain some light on the value placed on reports by both the pupils and their parents or guardians.

Do your reports give you any real help in planning your future program of studies? Almost two-thirds (60.3 per cent) of the pupils claimed that they receive such help. This response is probably surprising to many readers, and it is plausible that it means only that success in certain subjects leads to continued pursuit of those subjects or of kindred subjects and that certain courses are selected or avoided because of the kind of marks assigned by individual teachers. It is, of course, worthy of note that 40 per cent of the pupils do not feel that reports provide much help in planning programs of studies.

Does your report make you more interested in "passing" than in mastering and enjoying the subjects you study? The response to this question has already been considered in the section dealing with the moral and emotional effects of reports. In the present instance it is desirable only to repeat that 55.8 per cent of the pupils gave affirmative answers to the question, a fact which seems to imply that work in high school must be decidedly dull to a very large percentage of the pupils.

Do you think that your parents (or guardian) regard reports as valuable information? About two-thirds (64.5 per cent) of the pupils answered this question affirmatively. One wonders what effect home environment has on the attitude parents take toward reports. Relative to this, it is interesting to note that only 42.7 per cent of the group of pupils whose parents almost certainly live in unwholesome environments answered the question affirmatively and that the greatest percentage (81.3 per cent) of affirmative answers was given by pupils living in a community largely industrial. In the other schools the percentages of pupils giving affirmative answers were 67.1, 72.2, 78.2, and 79.6. Of the boys, 72.1 per cent answered affirmatively; of the girls, 58.0 per cent. This means, perhaps, that boys more frequently receive "inside information" on the value of reports.

Do your parents (or guardian) talk with you about your marks when a report is received? A very large percentage (80.5 per cent) of the parents were said to discuss marks with their children. This apparently corroborates the response to the question discussed in the preceding paragraph. The replies did not, of course, indicate the nature of the discussions; their value, therefore, is not certain. Still, it is reasonable to assume that reports make a decided impression on parents.

Do your parents (or guardian) ever go to see, or communicate with, your teachers or the principal about your report? In response to this question, it was asserted that 62.3 per cent of the parents never follow up the reports. The 32.0 per cent who do probably do so not to co-operate but to complain. This opinion is strengthened by the fact that 39.4 per cent of the boys answered the question affirmatively. Consideration of the responses to both this question

and the preceding question seems to suggest the conclusion that, while reports are probably very generally discussed in the home, there is not much co-operation between the school and the home as the direct result of reports.

PUPILS' OPINIONS OF SOME SUGGESTED MODIFICATIONS

Would you like your report to indicate how you could improve your marks? This question was answered affirmatively by 76.3 per cent of the pupils, a convincing indication that school reports should meet this demand. Compliance with it would almost certainly make teachers more careful in assigning marks. In evaluating the suggestions made by the teachers, supervisors would get an insight into the teachers' ability and efficiency and would discover effective means of improving the instruction of individual teachers.

Would you understand your marks better if the average mark of all the pupils in the class were given in each subject? The introduction of this practice would seem to be justified by the fact that 55.6 per cent of the pupils answered the question affirmatively. The suggestion was approved by 62.0 per cent of the boys and 49.6 per cent of the girls.

PUPILS' OPINIONS OF SUGGESTED INNOVATIONS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF REPORTS

The answers to the questions discussed in this section bring to light some means by which reports may be made more helpful to pupils.

Would a letter from the principal to your parents (or guardian), sent at irregular intervals and reporting either progress or failure, make you work harder than does the usual form of report? It was not anticipated that only 42.6 per cent of the pupils would be helped by this variation from the general practice. Yet, it would seem that if it would improve the work of even much less than 40 per cent of the pupils, its introduction would be justified.

Would it be more helpful to you to have the teacher of each of your subjects hand to you in person, at irregular intervals, a slip telling you of the quality of your work, good or bad, in each case giving you the reason for his opinion? This question was answered affirmatively by 75.1 per cent of the pupils. Evidently, this innovation would

be welcomed by the great majority of high-school pupils. The plan commends itself because it would promote opportuneness in giving both warning and encouragement, would stimulate the teacher's interest in each of his pupils, and would intensify mutual teacher and pupil good-will. It could be objected, however, that the plan would hardly appeal to lazy, "hard-headed" teachers; that it would require much time, effort, and thought on the part of teachers; that at first it would be difficult to administer; and that it would tend to interfere with a uniform system of marking. Even though there may be additional objections to the plan, it is believed that its adoption would bring to the pupils benefits far outweighing any objections to it. Surely the plan is worth a fair trial.

Would you prefer to have your report mailed directly to your parents (or guardian)? Two-thirds (66.5 per cent) of the pupils answered this question negatively. This emphatic disapproval of the suggestion probably indicates that the procedure would offend even those pupils who make the best records. It is possible, however, that this class of pupils is included in the 25.1 per cent who approved the suggestion, but those teachers who believe that the rank and file of high-school pupils have a consistently dependable sense of honor will be inclined to doubt this.

PUPIL PREFERENCES REGARDING NOTATION OF MARKS AND FREQUENCY OF REPORTS

In expressing the preferences mentioned in this section, the pupils were instructed to "make the following statements express your feelings by drawing a line under those words that apply in your case."

I prefer my marks expressed by numerals (1, 2, 3, 4, 5 or I, II, III, IV, V), by letters (A, B, C, D, F), in percentages (98, 90, 82, 50, 46, etc.). The tabulation of the responses showed that 67.0 per cent of the pupils prefer percentages; 20.6 per cent, letters; and 6.0 per cent, numerals; 6.4 per cent did not express a preference. The decided preference for percentages is probably due to the ease with which they can be used in making comparisons. Pupils doubtless get considerable satisfaction from saying, for example, "I beat you four points this month" or "I raised my average ten points this term." Pupils like the objective definiteness of the scheme.

I prefer to have my report sent monthly, at the end of each term (semester), monthly and at the end of each term (semester). The tabulation showed that 55.1 per cent of the pupils want their reports sent monthly and at the end of each term; 25.1 per cent, monthly; 12.7 per cent, at the end of each term.

SEX DIFFERENCES IN THE RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This section does not undertake to interpret the sex differences in the responses to the questionnaire; this was to a degree attempted elsewhere. The purpose here is to demonstrate that there are marked sex differences in the answers to the questions. It is not claimed, of course, that any difference in response is due to the fact of sex alone. The following are the differences which seem to merit citation.

1. A larger percentage of the boys (53.6 per cent) than of the girls (34.2 per cent) feel that their marks do not give a fair estimate of what they do in their studies.
2. A larger percentage of the boys (63.8 per cent) than of the girls (57.1 per cent) get from their reports real help in planning their future programs of studies.
3. A much larger percentage of the boys (87.8 per cent) than of the girls (66.0 per cent) would like to have their reports indicate how they could improve their marks.
4. A much larger percentage of the boys (51.3 per cent) than of the girls (31.6 per cent) feel that teachers do not carefully consider marks before assigning them.
5. A larger percentage of the boys (52.2 per cent) than of the girls (47.5 per cent) claimed that a letter from the principal to their parents, sent at irregular intervals and reporting either progress or failure, would not make them work harder than does the usual form of report; similarly, a larger percentage of the boys (45.4 per cent) than of the girls (40.1 per cent) claimed that such a letter would have the opposite effect.
6. A larger percentage of the boys (57.1 per cent) than of the girls (53.5 per cent) admitted that they would not work as hard on their studies if they were given no marks at all; likewise, a greater percentage of the boys (41.2 per cent) than of the girls (37.6 per cent) made the opposite assertion.

7. A much larger percentage of the boys (73.2 per cent) than of the girls (60.5 per cent) do not desire to have their reports mailed directly to their parents; on the other hand, a very slightly greater percentage of the girls (26.0 per cent) than of the boys (24.1 per cent) approved the practice.

8. A slightly greater percentage of the girls (23.6 per cent) than of the boys (21.3 per cent) admitted returning reports with forged signatures of parents or guardians.

9. A larger percentage of the boys (61.4 per cent) than of the girls (50.8 per cent) said that reports make them more interested in "passing" than in mastering and enjoying the subjects studied.

10. A very much greater percentage of the boys (87.5 per cent) than of the girls (64.1 per cent) feel that it would be more helpful to have the teacher of each subject hand to each individual pupil a slip indicating the quality of the work, good or bad, and giving the reason for the opinion expressed.

11. A larger percentage of the boys (57.1 per cent) than of the girls (48.1 per cent) do not consider a low mark the first month a bluff by the teacher to make the pupil work harder.

12. A much larger percentage of the boys (79.2 per cent) than of the girls (64.9 per cent) said that they ask themselves what causes them to receive low marks—for example, carelessness, poor preparation, unwillingness to recite.

13. A larger percentage of the boys (51.3 per cent) than of the girls (44.8 per cent) claimed that they ask themselves why they receive high marks.

14. Low marks make a larger percentage of the girls (48.3 per cent) than of the boys (43.6 per cent) feel that they are failures.

15. A very much greater percentage of the boys (77.1 per cent) than of the girls (53.2 per cent) declared that low marks usually make them work harder.

16. A much larger percentage of the boys (72.1 per cent) than of the girls (58.0 per cent) think that their parents or guardians regard reports as valuable information.

17. A larger percentage of the boys (45.4 per cent) than of the girls (38.0 per cent) declared that they usually get about the same mark on each subject all the time.

18. A larger percentage of the girls (32.3 per cent) than of the boys (25.8 per cent) stated that they usually receive high or low marks from *all* their teachers at the same time.

19. A larger percentage of the boys (59.9 per cent) than of the girls (51.3 per cent) reported that they do not get the highest marks in the subjects that they study the hardest.

20. A larger percentage of the boys (53.2 per cent) than of the girls (48.3 per cent) said that they like best those teachers who give high marks.

21. A larger percentage of the boys (50.4 per cent) than of the girls (42.0 per cent) think that their marks are not fair when compared with those of other pupils.

22. A larger percentage of the boys (62.0 per cent) than of the girls (49.6 per cent) stated that they would understand their marks better if the average mark of all the pupils in the class were given in each subject.

23. A larger percentage of the girls (53.6 per cent) than of the boys (48.4 per cent) asserted that high marks usually make them work harder.

24. Upon receiving their reports, a larger percentage of the girls (57.5 per cent) than of the boys (51.6 per cent) are pleased; a larger percentage of the girls (44.9 per cent) than of the boys (28.8 per cent) are frightened; a larger percentage of the girls (21.8 per cent) than of the boys (20.2 per cent) are made angry; a larger percentage of the boys (21.0 per cent) than of the girls (11.5 per cent) are indifferent.

25. In rating desirable items to be marked on reports, the pupils as a whole placed them in the following order: preparation, attention, attitude toward study, rank in class, scholarship, conduct, reliability, self-control, evidence of leadership. The girls also ranked them in approximately this order, but the boys and girls in six instances ranked items precisely opposite—for example, the boys rated "rank" second, while the girls rated it fifth, and the boys rated "attention" fifth, while the girls rated it second.

26. In the case of twenty-three of the twenty-six questions to be answered by "Yes" or "No" the percentage of the girls failing to answer was much greater than that of the boys. On the average,

15.2 per cent of the girls failed to answer, while only 2.8 per cent of the boys neglected, or refused, to do so. This fact might signify that the girls answered the questions more conscientiously than did the boys, that they were less capable than were the boys of forming decisive opinions, or that they were less interested in the questionnaire than were the boys.

The following facts seem to justify the conclusion that, on the whole, the sex differences in the responses to the questionnaire are of considerable significance. The average difference between the percentage of the girls and the percentage of the boys making the same answers to the questions (thirty cases considered) is 9.8 points. In eleven of the thirty cases the differences range from 10.6 points to 23.9 points, the average difference being 17.1 points. In the nineteen remaining cases the differences range from 1.6 points to 9.5 points, the average difference being 5.6 points.

A STUDY OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF TEACHERS' TESTS

CHARLES E. OZANNE
Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio

The experiment here reported was an effort to construct a few tests as widely divergent in type as possible and tabulate student judgments on them. Much has been said of the test as a measuring instrument. Equally important is its power as a regulative device to determine the type of study that pupils shall undertake in order to meet the standards that the test sets up. Change the character of the tests on which, to a large extent, pupils pass or fail, and the character of the mental effort of the pupils is changed also. If tests based on faulty ideals are employed, an enormous amount of pupil effort is wasted. It was believed that what the pupils themselves would say about the tests after they had worked for some time in preparation for them would be worthy of consideration by teachers.

Three tests were given during three successive weeks to XII A civics classes in the Central High School of Cleveland. At the beginning of each week the type of test to be used that week was clearly explained. Throughout the week the classes were coached for the particular type of test used. The nature of the entire experiment was explained to the pupils at the beginning, and they were told that they would be asked to pass judgment on the character of the tests at the end.

The first test was of the completion type, a word or two being omitted from a sentence, the instructor reading the word "blank" instead. The sentences were read once only, and twenty-five questions were given. The time allowed for answering each question was brief. All questions were very specific, and an effort was made to have the test based on memory of assigned lessons only. Sample questions are as follows: The instructor read, "A leading opponent of extravagance in government is Senator Blank of Idaho," and the class wrote, "Borah." The instructor read, "An investigation showed

that nearly blank people in the United States more than sixty-five years old are dependent on charity," and the class wrote, "1,250,000."

This test tests memory only—memory of very specific details. It requires careful and exact preparation and cannot be answered by bluffing. Many questions can be asked and answered in a short time, and the marking of the papers is an easy and definite task.

The second test was as different from the first as possible. In connection with each of the daily lessons assigned on the four days preceding the test, a single large topic was stated. The classes were told that on the day of the test one of these topics would be named in the exact form in which it had already been given to them and that this would constitute the whole test. About half an hour was allowed for writing. The pupils were advised to come to class on the day of the test with essays fairly well planned on each of the topics named.

One of the lessons was on the modern city, and the examination topic was, "The Effort to Make Our Cities Good Places in Which to Live." Another was on Congress, with the test topic, "The United States Congress as a Law-making Body: Its Merits, Defects, and Methods of Improvement."

As contrasted with the first test, the second test gave the freest scope to originality and selective and organizing ability. It was, of course, a more difficult test to mark, yet perhaps not more so than an English composition which can be graded by one of the established scales.

The third test, like the first, was specific. It was at the opposite extreme from the first, however, in that the first was based on memory only while the third was wholly a test of the ability to reason. Ten questions were given to each class, each being simply the statement of some fact in civics. The pupil was required to complete the instructor's sentence by a clause giving the reason for the practice or the institution. The time allowed was narrowly limited. The pupils were warned that they might be penalized for either too short or too long answers. Answers must not be too short to give clearly a real and definite reason. The more concisely such a reason was given, the better. There was thus tested not only the reasoning power of the pupil but his ability to say much in a few words.

Samples of this test are as follows:

The instructor read, "The number of people entitling a state to a representative in Congress (i.e., the ratio of representation) has not remained stationary but has been greatly increased from census to census." A girl answered, "in order that the House of Representatives should not become so large as to be cumbersome and inefficient."

The instructor read, "The courts of the national government have power to hear cases between citizens of different states." One pupil wrote, "because if it were tried in one of the states, the tendency would be to favor the one in the case from the state."

The following is an example of an answer by a very poor student. The instructor read, "All cases affecting ambassadors are dealt with by the Supreme Court alone, never by the lower federal courts." The student wrote, "because the Supreme Court take [?] up the questions that have any connection with our nation."

What did the pupils think of the different tests? Table I summarizes the answers to various questions.

One would think that the reasoning test would arouse special interest. Table I, however, shows that this test ranks a low third in degree of interest expressed, the essay test being first. The percentage expressing interest in the reasoning test is more than twice as great in the case of the boys than in the case of the girls. A much larger percentage of girls than of boys expressed most interest in the test dealing with memorized details.

The answers to Question 2 ("Which test did you like best?") show much the same differences, the preference of the girls for the memory work and their dislike for the reasoning test as compared with the attitude of the boys being still more striking.

The reasoning test is designated as the most difficult by a much larger percentage of both boys and girls than is either of the other tests. The favor shown by the girls for the memory test and their dislike for the reasoning test as compared with the boys' attitude again appear. In the case of Question 4 ("Which test do you think best tests the mental ability of the pupil?"), however, a larger percentage of the girls than of the boys designate the reasoning test, while a large percentage of the boys and a small percentage of the girls name the essay test as best in determining mental ability.

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO SEVEN QUESTIONS

	BOYS		GIRLS		TOTAL	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1. Which test interested you most?						
Test:						
Completion.....	20	28.2	14	37.8	34	31.5
Essay.....	31	43.7	18	48.7	49	45.4
Reasoning.....	20	28.2	5	13.5	25	23.1
Total.....	71	100.0	37	100.0	108	100.0
2. Which test did you like best?						
Test:						
Completion.....	20	28.2	16	43.2	36	33.3
Essay.....	34	47.9	18	48.7	52	48.2
Reasoning.....	17	23.9	3	8.1	20	18.5
Total.....	71	100.0	37	100.0	108	100.0
3. Which of the three tests do you consider most difficult?						
Test:						
Completion.....	18	25.3	7	18.9	25	23.1
Essay.....	20	28.2	10	27.0	30	27.8
Reasoning.....	33	46.5	20	54.1	53	49.1
Total.....	71	100.0	37	100.0	108	100.0
4. Which test do you think best tests the mental ability of the pupil?						
Test:						
Completion.....	15	21.1	9	24.3	24	22.2
Essay.....	25	35.2	6	16.2	31	28.7
Reasoning.....	31	43.7	22	59.5	53	49.1
Total.....	71	100.0	37	100.0	108	100.0
5. Which test do you think was of most value from an educational point of view?						
Test:						
Completion.....	19	26.8	8	21.6	27	25.0
Essay.....	33	46.5	16	43.2	49	45.4
Reasoning.....	19	26.8	13	35.1	32	29.6
Total.....	71	100.0	37	99.9	108	100.0
6. Would you favor making use of all three types of test from time to time in class?						
Answer:						
Yes.....	50	70.4	31	83.8	81	75.0
No.....	21	29.6	6	16.2	27	25.0
Total.....	71	100.0	37	100.0	108	100.0

TABLE I—*Continued*

	BOYS		GIRLS		TOTAL	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
7. If you would not use all tests, which would you omit?						
Test:						
Completion.....	3	15.0	0	0.0	3	11.5
Essay.....	3	15.0	1	16.7	4	15.4
Reasoning.....	7	35.0	3	50.0	10	38.5
Completion and essay.....	1	5.0	0	0.0	1	3.8
Completion and reasoning.....	5	25.0	1	16.7	6	23.1
Essay and reasoning.....	1	5.0	1	16.7	2	7.7
Total.....	20	100.0	6	100.1	26	100.0

With regard to the test having the most educational value, the percentage naming the reasoning test is distinctly greater in the case of the girls than in the case of the boys. Among both boys and girls, however, the percentage holding that the essay test has the most educational value exceeds by a large amount the percentage of those naming either of the other tests.

Three-fourths of the pupils think that each test has sufficient value for occasional use; no one test being desirable for sole use. Of the pupils who do not favor the use of all three tests but would eliminate one or two, those who would drop the reasoning test are much more numerous than those who would eliminate any other test. It must be remembered that the manner in which the reasoning test was given undoubtedly made it a difficult test. A good reason had to be given; the reason had to be fitted grammatically into the sentence read by the instructor; the reason had to be given clearly and in the fewest possible words; all this had to be done in a very short period of time. One girl wrote, "About all I can say for the reasoning test is that I never want another one like it."

A considerable part of the questionnaire asked the pupils to state the merits and demerits of each test in turn and to give general comments on any of the tests as they felt inclined. As the answers are too varied and too long to be reported fully, only a few of the more frequent or striking answers will be presented.

In reply to the request to name the most serious fault of each type of test, some pupils said of one or another test that they found

no fault in it. Nine pupils, five boys and four girls, saw no fault in the completion test. Thirty-two pupils, twenty-two boys and ten girls, found no fault in the essay test. Twenty-two pupils, sixteen boys and six girls, saw no fault in the reasoning test. The large popularity indicated for the essay test is striking.

Emphasis is laid on the fact that the completion test tests memory alone, other powers of mind not being called for, and that it compels one to memorize small details that are very soon forgotten. "I have already forgotten all the dates and figures I had memorized for the test," one pupil wrote. "You may learn the date of the passing of the bonus bill or the number of votes for or against the tax reduction in both houses on the Thursday of the test," wrote another, "but on the next Monday you no longer know anything about the votes or the date, for they are completely forgotten after the test is taken."

On the other hand, the completion test was praised on the ground that one cannot bluff through it but must buckle down to hard, concentrated work. "The questions cannot be evaded," wrote one girl. "The one word gives no room for bluffing and lets you see just how little you really know. The next time you will know better." "Pupils are inclined to become sluggish in their studies or to do their studying in a slipshod manner," said another girl. "This sort of test forces them to buckle down to hard and thorough studying." A number said that it trains the memory.

In naming the defects of the essay test, a great many pupils said that it is easy to bluff in this test and that pupils who do not write English well are at a disadvantage. One said in substance that a pupil with a vivid imagination and a good vocabulary is likely to bluff his way through. Another said that those who can write well do not have to study the subject and that it does not seem fair to those who cannot write.

On the other hand, the essay test gives opportunity to express one's own thoughts; it calls for originality and ingenuity; it develops power of expression; it teaches pupils to organize and arrange well. "The best point about the essay test," wrote one pupil, "was that it showed whether or not you could use facts and draw any inference from them."

Some pupils spoke of the difficulty of the reasoning test. "The

reasoning test was especially hard," said one girl. "In addition to being an English test, it was a rapid-fire attack on all the reasoning power. To form your opinion and then put it all into a brief, 'pithy' sentence is a great task." Another girl wrote, "I believe it to be a little too difficult for our as yet untrained minds, one that requires a more mature mind and sounder reasoning power." A boy said that there are too many answers to every question and that what the pupils may think the best answer the teacher may not. "It requires an exact answer on a broad subject and is therefore difficult," another boy said. A girl complained that the study of the daily lesson does not make much difference, since questions need reasoning more than study.

In favor of the reasoning test it was said that it requires reasoning, clear thinking, and alertness. One boy said that it teaches one to think quickly and effectively without any preparation, fitting one to meet the perplexing problems in real life that require quick thought.

Some spoke of the interest created by the varied character of the tests. "It has been the first time that different types of tests have been presented to me during one term." "Then the ever changing of test methods keeps the pupils alert to everything that is going on in the classroom." "I like a change in tests the same as I like a change in my food." A poor student, however, complained that it took him a long time to "catch on" to a new type of test and by the time he had become acquainted with it, another type of test was introduced.

Interest was also aroused by the fact that the whole nature of the experiment was explained to the class at the start. The question naturally suggests itself whether, instead of a fixed routine in class, teachers and classes could not, with profit to both, make many simple experiments in varied classroom methods and discuss the results together.

WHAT ABOUT TARDINESSES?

F. H. PIERCE
Beverly High School, Beverly, Massachusetts

It is both interesting and perplexing to note the answers received from high-school principals when they are asked, "What about this matter of tardinesses?" One says, "We are never bothered with them." Another answers, "We don't make any account of them—don't consider them as a problem at all." Still another says, "We have always had them and probably always shall"—a necessary evil evidently. Many others say, "We don't let them go too far; if a pupil is tardy too many times, we punish him in some way." Still others tell of harsh punishments which they inflict for even one or two cases of tardiness. Many ask the questioner what experiences he has had and what methods he has found most effective in dealing with the problem.

In view of the fact that many and varied demands are now made on his time and energy, the principal may possibly feel that there are other problems of so much greater importance that he can pay little attention to this one. The writer heard the principal of a large high school say that he was not hired to spend his valuable time checking up on children who could not get to school on time. "That," he said, "is the parents' responsibility, not mine."

In order to pass sane judgment on the value of the time spent in organizing and administering a system which will check tardinesses, we must first consider why tardiness should be reduced to an exceptional occurrence in the case of a given pupil. Even though we pass over the interruptions and distractions caused when the tardy pupils enter the classrooms and study rooms, as well as the loss of parts of recitations by the tardy pupils, we are faced with considerations of vital and far-reaching effects. Training for citizenship is one of the cardinal objectives ever before us in our educational program. Who will dispute that punctuality, promptness, and responsibility are assets of priceless value in our growing citizenry? Moreover, important as positive habits in these matters are, of still greater im-

portance is it that all the pupils of a school be taught in an atmosphere which nurtures these qualities by seeing that they are practiced throughout the system.

An accurate computation of the actual rate of tardiness in a school over a definite period of time is the only safe basis on which to proceed in the elimination of certain very unnecessary tardinesses and in the reduction of the gross number.

At the opening of the school year 1920-21, the writer, who was at that time principal of a high school of approximately six hundred pupils in Lewiston, Maine, determined to investigate the matter of tardinesses in his school. He thought that many were unnecessary and felt that they were contributing to the lowering of the morale of the student body. Excessive tardiness should probably be considered both as an indication of a low morale and as an aggravation of that condition.

Remedial treatment was started through a faculty meeting, at which all became acquainted with the facts concerning the number of tardinesses during the two preceding years. No statement could be found of what would be considered a reasonable number of tardinesses in a high school of approximately the same size which opened its school day at 8:00 A.M. Many teachers reported that some pupils deliberately loitered on the way to school and that the parents of other pupils made no serious attempts to have them leave home in time to avoid being late at school. Thus it became evident that there were two factors in the problem, the pupil and the home. It is sometimes necessary to educate the latter as well as the former.

This meeting proved most profitable in the enlistment of the teachers in the cause of tardiness reduction. The English department found itself in a strategic position in the program. Themes and oral discussions on the value of punctuality served to arouse the interest of the pupils. The civics teachers emphasized fairness and justice as factors in good citizenship, developing the thought that no small group of pupils had the right to interrupt the work of the school officers and of their own classmates by seeking late admission to home rooms, study rooms, and classes. It should be mentioned at this point that investigation had revealed the fact that the tardinesses were confined, for the most part, to a limited number of pupils

who were habitually late. The principal discussed the matter in an assembly, sought the co-operation of the pupils, and explained as clearly as possible the steps which would be taken in the case of those who did not respond to the appeal.

The method of treatment explained in the assembly was put into effect immediately. A pupil who came into the building late was

JORDAN HIGH SCHOOL

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TARDINESS NOTICE

Your _____ arrived at school this morning at _____

The reason given for the tardiness was _____

This is _____ case of inexcusable tardiness this quarter.

Your co-operation is sought in the matter of punctuality.

_____ Principal

The parent is requested to sign below and return the slip by
the pupil.

_____ Parent

obliged to report at the office for an admittance slip unless a bona-fide written excuse from his parents was presented, showing that the pupil had been detained for some unavoidable reason. He was given a bright yellow slip (Yellow is significant.) to take to his room. Thus it was advertised that the pupil was tardy and disloyal to his school.

The pupil was also asked to state the reason for his lateness. This reason was entered in a record book opposite his name and the date of the tardiness. Furthermore, he was warned that a second offense would mean a statement and an appeal to his parents and two hours of time to be spent at the post-closing afternoon session. If a second offense occurred, the punishment was promptly administered, and the notice shown above was sent to his parents. In more than one-half of the cases, this notice brought a response from

the home, almost always appreciative and co-operative, which ended the tardiness of the pupil concerned.

At this point it should be stated that the threat of too heavy a penalty for tardiness is likely to result in a worse school offense—truancy. Finding himself late on the way to school, the pupil takes a chance that he will not be discovered in truancy and goes else-

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SECOND TARDINESS NOTICE

Your _____ was tardy on _____ and on _____ for the second time this quarter at which time we notified you and asked for your co-operation in the interests of punctuality.

He She was again tardy on _____, reaching school at _____ . The reason given for this tardiness was _____

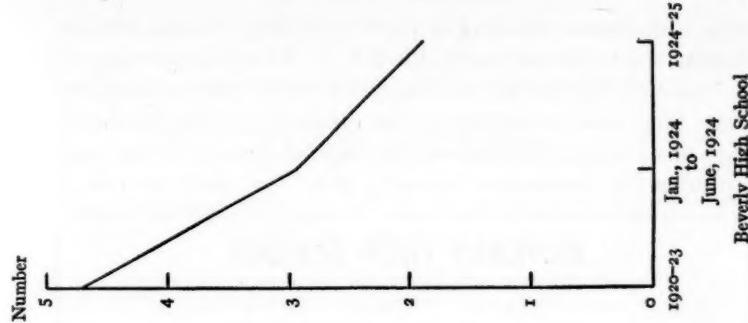
May we depend on you to help us improve our school by having the pupils in their rooms when the session opens.

Principal

where. This situation can be met by careful investigation of absences, based on a knowledge of the individuals, and a treatment of truancy which makes it a much greater offense than tardiness.

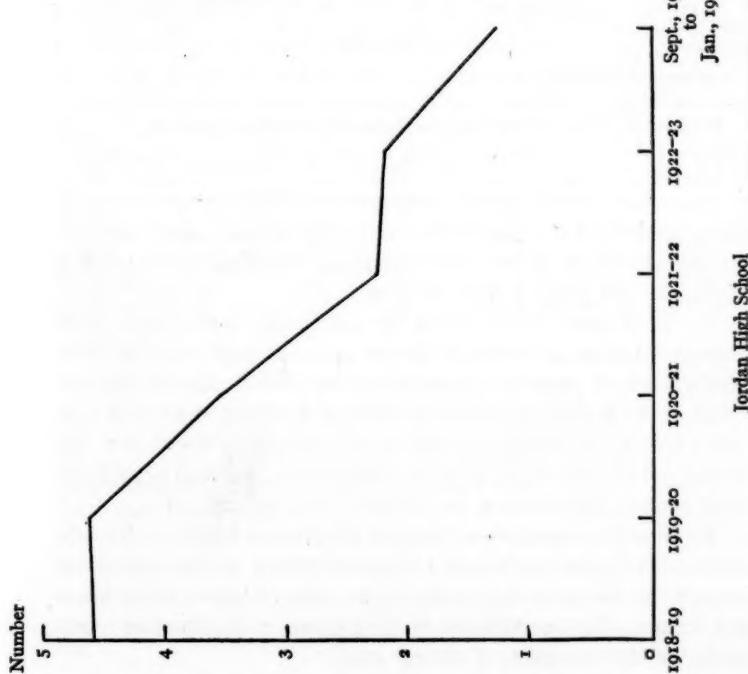
A few pupils were tardy a third time. A notice was sent to the parent with the statement that this was the third case and that the parent must communicate with the principal as promptly as possible. The few cases which went beyond this point demanded individual treatment. It is the writer's belief that persistent and wilful tardiness should be considered disobedience and punished with suspension if necessary.

Figure 1 shows the results obtained from September, 1920, to January, 1924, by pursuing the methods outlined. The number of tardinesses per pupil was computed by dividing the total number of tardinesses for the year by the average attendance of the school for the year. The writer left the Jordan High School January 1,



Beverly High School

FIG. 1.—Number of tardinesses per pupil



Jordan High School

1924, and became principal of the Beverly High School, Beverly, Massachusetts. Consequently, the data for the school year 1923-24 are based on the experiences of the first fourteen weeks of the school year. The computation assumes that the same rate of tardiness and the same average attendance would continue throughout the year. Probably this assumption is wrong; it is likely that the rate of

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THIRD TARDINESS NOTICE

Your _____ was tardy _____

We notified you in each instance and sought your aid in our attempts to instil punctuality in our pupils and to avoid interruptions in our school after the session had opened.

Your son daughter was tardy for the **FOURTH** time this quarter _____, reaching school at _____. The excuse offered was _____

Please telephone the principal (366-R) or call in person.

Principal

tardiness would have been higher during the winter months and the average attendance lower, thus increasing somewhat the number of tardinesses per pupil during the year.

In the Beverly High School the tardinesses were found to be excessive, being, as Figure 1 shows, 4.7 per pupil for the three previous school years. A program of treatment similar to that followed in the Jordan High School was begun immediately. The first notice sent to the home was like the one previously mentioned; the second notice, shown on page 64, was printed on blue paper; the third notice, shown above, was printed on bright red paper.

It should be mentioned that the city truant officer in Beverly rendered valuable assistance in the reduction of tardinesses by visiting the homes of the pupils in the cases of excessive tardiness and securing the co-operation of the parents or information much needed in the treatment of chronic cases.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A handbook of international education.—For some time students of education have felt the need of a clearing-house which would give a convenient summary of educational developments in the various countries of the world. Much is to be gained through international exchange of educational experiences, but most of the members of the teaching profession have neither the library facilities nor the linguistic equipment to read the current foreign literature in the original languages. This need has been recognized by the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, which was established in 1923 for three purposes: (1) to give special assistance and guidance to the increasing body of foreign students in Teachers College, (2) to conduct investigations of educational conditions, movements, and tendencies in foreign countries, (3) to make the results of such investigations available to students of education in the United States and elsewhere in the hope that such pooling of information might help to promote and advance the cause of education.

The efforts of the International Institute of Teachers College have resulted in the publication of a yearbook,¹ which is the first of a series to be issued at regular intervals in the future. The editor feels that the post-war period of reconstruction has reached such a state of comparative equilibrium as to make possible some evaluation of the extensive educational developments of the past ten or fifteen years. It is planned to discuss education in the leading countries of the world each year and to treat the educational systems of each smaller country at least once every five years.

The present volume is divided into two parts. Part I discusses the present status of education in twelve selected countries: Australia, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Czecho-Slovakia, England, France, Germany, Italy, Norway, South Africa, and the United States. The various articles were written by authors who are recognized as competent to speak with authority regarding education in their respective countries. In order to preserve some uniformity throughout the volume, the editor submitted an outline to each author. Among the topics treated in the discussions of Part I are administration, education at the various levels of instruction (preschool and kindergarten, elementary, intermediate,

¹ *Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924.* Edited by I. L. Kandel. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. xiv+650.

secondary, and university), vocational education, private schools, teachers, tests and measurements, medical and social work, statistics, and current problems.

Part II presents a treatment of educational methods in a few representative centers, namely, England, Germany, the United States, and, to a lesser extent, France. Among the topics treated are general methods; special methods; and methods as influenced by administrative authority, nationalism, philosophy of education, educational psychology, textbooks, curriculum improvement, teacher-training, tests and measurements, and experimental schools.

Australia is working with the problems of school finance, compulsory education, and mental defectives. Canada, with its vast stretches of sparsely settled territory, has as its greatest problem the rural school; it is attempting to solve this problem by consolidation and a larger unit of organization. The unique problem of China is mass illiteracy to the extent of two hundred million people. Among other things, England is concerned with adult education, library movements, and the value of competitive examinations. No change of fundamental importance has been made recently in the strongly centralized French system of education. Germany is in the midst of a period of transition in which she is attempting to deal with the almost unsolvable problem of developing a new educational ideal. In Italy the Gentile reform of 1923 has effected a reconstruction of all educational institutions from the kindergarten to the university.

The yearbook performs a real service and is a distinct contribution to education. The present volume makes no attempt to set up comparisons or to emphasize interpretations; within the limitations of the outline used, each author presents the education of his native country in his own way. The editor points out that uniformity of terminology and uniformity of standards in statistics are not entirely possible at present, but he hopes that the difficulties involved may be overcome in the course of time. Students of the history of education and educational workers in general will find the volume very profitable reading.

CARTER V. GOOD

MIAMI UNIVERSITY

A five-year experiment with exploratory courses in a junior high school.—The obvious shortcomings of the 8-4 plan of educational organization have no doubt influenced many communities to accept the 6-3-3 or the 6-6 plan as a substitute purely on faith and to require nothing more than qualitative proof of its successful operation. A report of a 6-3-3 experiment¹ in educational reorganization at Okmulgee, Oklahoma, presents evidence of a more valid character covering a period of study of five years.

The report contains seven chapters. Chapter i summarizes the current

¹ Herbert B. Bruner, *The Junior High School at Work*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 177. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Pp. viii+112.

opinions and theories of the junior high school. Chapter ii restates the reasons for the development of the broadening and finding idea of the intermediate-school reorganization. Chapter iii presents the broadening and finding scheme of the Okmulgee, Oklahoma, schools. Chapter iv outlines the courses and activities. Chapter v describes the methods of administration. Chapter vi presents a body of evidence of effectiveness and desirability. Chapter vii contains a summary and conclusions.

The most valuable phases of the report are (1) the account of the plan for providing broadening and finding experiences for pupils of the seventh and eighth grades, (2) the detailed outline of the courses and activities provided, (3) the methods of administration, and (4) the evidences of results. The twenty-eight broadening and finding courses offered are nine weeks in length in the seventh grade and either nine or eighteen weeks in the eighth grade. Every pupil is compelled to take four in the seventh grade and two, three, or four in the eighth grade in addition to the required core curriculum.

It is the aim of these short courses to present glimpses of the future studies in the field in which they are given, as well as to show the pupils the possibilities of the different professions and businesses of which each is a sample. In other words, these courses are cross-sections of later work. . . . Practically every department in the senior high school contributes one or more nine-weeks offerings for the benefit of the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils [p. 18].

As evidence of the success of the experiment, the author of the report cites (1) the unqualified approval of the board of education, (2) the whole-hearted indorsement of 95 per cent of the voters and of 98 per cent of the school patrons, (3) the enthusiastic support of fifty-five of the sixty teachers who taught broadening and finding courses during the period of the experiment, (4) an increase of 45 per cent in the holding power of the junior high school years and an increase of 55 per cent in the holding power of the senior high school, (5) a reduction in pupil failures in academic courses. In the case of Latin the failure rate for a period of four years was reduced from 40 per cent to 6 per cent. On purely qualitative grounds, the finding courses are justified by the obvious broadening and cultural effects on the pupils of the seventh and eighth grades and by the guidance values in the selection of courses in the ninth grade and in the senior high school.

The report is a valuable contribution to the literature of the junior high school. The descriptive account of broadening and finding courses should prove exceedingly helpful to those interested in developing the exploratory functions of the seventh and eighth grades, and the factual evidence of satisfactory service which the author has assembled should help to set at rest the doubts of those who have been slow to accept the claims of the junior high school movement.

W. C. REAVIS

Sociology for the high school.—The social-science work in the high school has developed very rapidly in recent years and has brought into being a large num-

ber of texts and collateral volumes. These books are as varied in point of view, content, and treatment of subject matter as are the courses in social science themselves. While the variation is often confusing, it is at the same time a sign of vigor and the cause of considerable progress in the field.

One example of this progress is to be found in a book¹ intended as a text in sociology for high schools. The scope of the book is somewhat more restricted than that of the usual text for the so-called "modern-problems course." The author views askance such courses, which draw their content from the realms of history, economics, sociology, political science, etc. He feels that a single high-school course is not sufficient for the treatment of materials from all these fields in a practicable and profitable manner. For this reason, his book is written primarily from a sociological standpoint, although the discussion leads him at times into industrial affairs. History is used only as a source for sociological data; economics in its usual sense is not considered; politics and government are left out altogether.

In the Preface we are told that "those conditions which are products of the natural evolution of society . . . are presented first, and the problems which arise from maladjustment of society . . . are left until the end." The introductory chapters of the book deal with "The Nature of Sociology" and the basic importance of environment and heredity. Following these are chapters on the conditions of society, which include material on population, immigration, urban migration, the Negro problem, problems of the family, and certain problems of industry which have sociological aspects, such as child labor and unemployment. Then come the problems of social maladjustment, such as poverty, crime, and the treatment of defectives. The book is concluded with a chapter on "Progress," which states briefly the philosophy with which the author regards the conditions and the problems discussed.

The volume has several notable qualities and some few defects. The material on heredity and environment is exceptionally complete and vividly presented. The chapter dealing with environment is called, "The Influence of Geographic Environment," a title too restricted for the material discussed. The problems of immigration are well presented in chapters containing a wealth of statistical and human material. The discussion of the "Negro Problem" seems to ignore the aspirations of the Negroes themselves, but it offers considerable information on conditions which have given rise to the present race situation. The chapters dealing with social maladjustments are well planned and complete. The concluding chapter on "Progress" is a sort of combined postscript and sermon, which seems somewhat out of place. The book is both substantially and attractively bound, but the illustrations lack a human element essential for an appeal to high-school pupils.

Withal, the book has value. It meets admirably the rather meager demand for purely sociological texts in the high school; more important, it is highly val-

¹ Grove Samuel Dow in collaboration with Edgar B. Wesley, *Social Problems of Today*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1925. Pp. xvi+338. \$2.00.

able as a collateral volume for the more general "modern-problems" course. Material for special papers and talks may be found here in a form interesting to the pupil. Especially in the work on immigration, on child labor and women in industry, and on poverty and crime is the book worth while. It will form a valuable addition to the reference shelves of both the high-school library and the teacher's library.

HOWARD E. WILSON

A new type of state history.—The study of state and local history has been recommended from time to time by committees engaged in the preparation of courses of study, but the attention given to such materials by teachers of history has varied widely. Too often an adequate presentation of state or local history has been lost in a mass of details concerning personages, facts, and dates of national importance. Again, state histories have been heavily loaded with a narrative treatment of events, interpolated with apocryphal or highly imaginative stories of local heroes. A new approach to the study of state history, as embodied in a recent book,¹ will be welcomed by teachers of history.

The authors present in fifteen chapters an epitome of the political, economic, industrial, and social development of Pennsylvania, made up of a compilation of legal documents, legislation, inaugural addresses, newspaper articles and editorials, letters, documents of trade unions and other organizations, excerpts from books, and other materials included in the archives of the state. The materials of the book, as well as the selections included in the different chapters, are arranged in chronological order, the dates of the selections ranging from 1624 to 1923. A presentation conterminous with the history of the nation is thus afforded. Many of the selections are particularly valuable in providing insights on events of national significance. The chapters on "Social Life," "Education," "Economic Development," "Labor Conditions," "Transportation and Internal Improvements," and "Finance and Banking" furnish types of content that are usually inadequately treated in national, as well as state, histories. Excerpts from materials on both sides of controversial questions are included. Each of the 241 selections is introduced by a brief explanatory or descriptive paragraph to orient the reader. The authors have made a careful evaluation of materials, and, while they have faced the necessity of eliminating portions of many documents, each selection is of sufficient length to provide a unified account. The book preserves an even balance between the political, economic, and social phases of the development of the state. The selections included in the volume may be woven into a course in American history in a profitable manner or may be used in a separate course with one of the state histories now available.

General readers will find the volume worth while and interesting. Workers in state history in other states will find the new approach suggestive for their

¹ Asa Earl Martin and Hiram Herr Shenk, *Pennsylvania History Told by Contemporaries*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. xxii+622.

own endeavors. The authors, a professor of American history and the archivist of the Pennsylvania State Library, are to be commended for producing a volume that is in every way worthy.

W. G. KIMMEL

Education as habit-formation.—The writer of a text in educational psychology, as in any other field of education, has very largely determined the content of his work when he has settled upon his conception of the purpose of the educational process. To Professor A. S. Edwards, of the University of Georgia, education is habit formation. His recently revised text,¹ therefore, is a psychological discussion of the procedure whereby new, permanent types of reaction are acquired. As is indicated by the title, the book is intended to show "how the results of general psychology and experimental psychology and of allied sciences can be put into use by the teacher and the student in the problems of learning and of study" (p. 7).

The book consists of nineteen chapters, distributed among four parts. In the first of the four parts, "Habit and Education," the author formulates and defends his doctrine of education as habit formation. Part II, "Learning and Retention," the longest part, resembles the conventional educational psychology in its subject matter: principles of habit formation, types of learning, learning curves, permanence of acquisition, transfer, and kindred topics. Part III, "Stimulation," contains a series of case studies, analyzed to show the possibilities of motivation through the application of psychological principles, and a chapter on study and the directing of study. The fourth part, one chapter in length, discusses "Definiteness in Aim and in Method" chiefly in terms of Latin and English. There is appended an extensive bibliography of 122 references.

The book as a whole lacks unity. Chapter vii, "Problems of Thinking," is essentially a chapter from logic. Part I is philosophical in nature and hardly belongs in an educational psychology, certainly not to the extent of forty-five pages. Some justification may be offered for the inclusion of such material on the ground that the text is intended to serve an immediate, practical purpose for the student as well as a deferred purpose for the future teacher. There is, however, less to be said in favor of the author's style of presentation; the exposition, especially in Part I, is repetitious and incoherent on account of overfrequent quotation. There are more than forty references in the first fifty pages.

A more fundamental objection may be raised to the author's general thesis of education as habit formation. Professor Edwards reports that "of the many people the writer has asked, none has been able to suggest an exception to the statement that all the results of education are habits of some kind" (p. 36). This remarkable agreement of educators is easily explicable: the author gives the term "habit" such a wide connotation that it covers all conceivable products of education. Such usage is unwise, since psychology has assigned the word a

¹ A. S. Edwards, *The Fundamental Principles of Learning and Study*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1925 [revised]. Pp. 256. \$1.80.

definite meaning, and is conducive of slack thinking, since clarity of thought is secured not through vague, all-inclusive terms but through narrowly defined, specific terms. Furthermore, "The Habit Theory," as the author calls it, is objectionable because of its implications; if education is merely the formation of habits, there is but a single method of learning and of teaching, and one develops interests, ideals, attitudes, habitudes, and the like all in the same fashion.

The most commendable features of the book are the practical consideration of the formation of good study habits in pupils and the concrete suggestions with respect to sound methods of awakening interest and effort in uninterested pupils.

WILLIAM ARTHUR BROWNELL

Tentative objectives in junior high school mathematics.—The aims of a valuable contribution¹ to mathematical literature are "(1) to review and summarize the studies made by other workers in the field; (2) to advance the line by reports on special problems bearing on the general topic; (3) to construct a list of specific objectives using five criteria; (4) to present a more complete picture of the strength of mental connections in arithmetic for pupils at the beginning of the seventh grade; and (5) to formulate a technique whereby materials written for children may be adjusted on the basis of classroom trial under widely diversified conditions" (p. 1).

The author outlines his procedure as follows:

1. The formulation of a brief list of guiding principles, implying a philosophy of secondary education.
2. The selection of specific objectives on the basis of the following criteria:
 - a) A summary of the elements for which some kind of a positive case can now be made by employing one or more objective studies dealing with the social uses of mathematics.
 - b) Practice as determined by an inventory of selected courses of study.
 - c) Report of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements.
 - d) An inventory of the first seven series of mathematical texts written for the junior high school grades.
 - e) A highly selected jury of five educators especially interested in the junior high school and five leaders in the teaching of high-school mathematics.
3. The refinement of the elements selected and their grade placement by means of extensive classroom trial under test and report conditions [pp. 3-4].

Guiding principles are presented for secondary education, for the junior high school, and for junior high school mathematics. Six principles are employed in the determination of the course in mathematics for the junior high school: immediate values, psychological organization, content, the unifying principle, mastery, and social utility.

¹ Raleigh Schorling, *A Tentative List of Objectives in the Teaching of Junior High School Mathematics, with Investigations for the Determining of Their Validity*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: George Wahr, 1925. Pp. 138.

It is fair to say that not all these objectives are being realized in all the junior high schools of the country today. There is, however, abundant evidence of definite progress in organization, in curriculum revision, and in methods of teaching.

The author reports the results of an inventory test given to 3,260 seventh-grade pupils. Of the 125 simple elements of arithmetic included in the test, there were only eight in which 90 per cent of the pupils were proficient; in five tasks less than 10 per cent of the pupils were successful.

The results obtained from a jury of mathematical leaders and general educators seem to be less convincing. Perhaps there are involved here some of the fallacies of the questionnaire method of investigation. A study of this type, including nice gradations of opinion on widely varying and numerous matters, produces results not too impressive from a scientific standpoint.

The mathematical world should appreciate the carefully organized presentation, and it is hoped that the material included will be studied by all teachers in the field of junior and senior high school mathematics. A close analysis of the contents will not only guide teachers in the intermediate grades but also provide a basis for the solution of the many problems relating to the better articulation of the mathematics of the elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school.

WALTER F. DOWNEY

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Moral and social training in secondary schools.—There is abundant evidence that the modern secondary school has come to recognize the necessity for training the youth of the country to fit properly into a complex social life. A school is no longer looked upon as a properly functioning institution when its course of study embraces only those subjects which are fundamentally academic in nature. Progressive high-school administrators are particularly interested in developing methods which will train boys and girls in adjusting themselves to the life of the community.

It is in this connection that a report¹ has been made by a committee from the high schools of Cleveland, Ohio. This report clearly indicates what is being done in the various junior and senior high schools of that city toward training the pupils in moral and social ideals. In making the report, the committee aimed to familiarize every secondary school in the city with the different methods being used in the other schools in giving social and moral guidance. Furthermore, it was hoped that schools outside the Cleveland system might profit to some extent by a study of the findings of the committee.

The book is divided into two main sections. The first part reviews the methods that are being used in the various schools in developing proper ideals in

¹ *Social Guidance in Cleveland High Schools.* Cleveland: Cleveland Teachers' Federation. Pp. 190. \$1.25.

the pupils. Particular attention is given in this section to student organizations and their contributions to social development. Although the presentation is in the form of a report, numerous suggestions and criticisms are offered by the committee. The second section deals with the questionnaire methods which were used in gathering the data. As much of the material as is adapted to it is given statistical treatment and organized for presentation. In order to preserve the human element, certain selections are made from the bulk of questionnaire answers and given individual treatment. A third section of the report deals briefly with experimental evidence from other city systems.

A report of this nature truly serves a definite purpose in furthering training in social and moral guidance. It is one thing to realize that such training is needed and an entirely different thing to adopt effective methods that will result in proper training. The Cleveland report well emphasizes the fact that any set of methods must be modified to suit the particular school and that no general working rule can be laid down in the adoption of the activities outlined. Furthermore, it states that the successful operation of any method will depend on the tact and the ability of the individual teacher. Chapter x, which makes a good case for curriculum adjustment to meet the changing needs of society, warrants study. The report is a contribution to the Cleveland high schools, but it will be of genuine value to all high schools interested in the development of moral and social ideals.

D. M. WIGGINS

The work of the visiting teacher.—The problem child in the public schools has been accorded various degrees of consideration and many types of treatment. By some teachers and administrators he has been labeled "impossible" or "hopeless," and he has been endured until the time when he could be eliminated from school and society at large should assume responsibility for his future. By others he has been committed to corrective institutions for supervision. In recent years he has been given special consideration in the more progressive school systems of the country, and new methods of dealing with him have been proposed. One of these methods centers around the visiting teacher, whose function is to discover the causes underlying the pupil's special difficulty.

The Visiting Teacher in Rochester,¹ by Mabel Brown Ellis, discusses in a non-technical, interesting manner the operation of this method of dealing with the problem child in the school system of Rochester, New York. The author makes no attempt to present statistical evidence and scientific conclusions as to the effectiveness of the work of the visiting teacher but aims, rather, to give a descriptive account of the background, history, methods, and results of the plan as it now operates, together with a brief account of the relation of this agency to others within and outside the school.

¹ Mabel Brown Ellis, *The Visiting Teacher in Rochester*. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (50 East 42d Street), 1925. Pp. 206. \$0.75.

In the first part of the book the author points out the fact that Rochester was made the basis of her study because of certain advantages which it offered. It is a typical industrial center of 300,000 population with nearly two thousand factories. Its population of many nationalities is composed of a thrifty class of people, who have an interest in civic affairs. Its educational system at the present time is ranked among the best in the United States. As the city has grown into an important industrial center, new school problems have arisen, and special agencies have been established to meet the new demands. Among the latter may be mentioned a highly trained teaching force; an elaborate building program for the schools; organized health work, employing twenty full-time physicians; a department of special education for the gifted, retarded, and defective pupils; a department of child study; special provision for educational guidance and placement; special advisers for boys and girls; and attendance officers; to say nothing of the numerous agencies of social service which are not a part of the school system but which co-operate with the school administration.

The department of visiting teachers in Rochester began in a limited way in 1913 when one teacher was assigned to this work and continued in it over a period of seven years. In 1920 it was organized by the board of education as a distinct department, employing three teachers. The work has grown until the department now has a total staff of sixteen. Other cities had departments of visiting teachers prior to 1913, but Rochester was the first city to have such a department under the direct support of the board of education.

The department is under the general supervision of a director, who has charge of the visiting teachers, certain volunteer workers who aspire to positions as visiting teachers, and certain allied workers of other departments. The working day corresponds to that of other teachers with necessary modifications as to hours on account of the nature of the work. The salary schedule is comparable to that of regular teachers. Add to this the permanence of the position, and it is not unattractive. Office hours and private offices are arranged for the visiting teachers, and fairly complete records of the cases are filed.

One of the most interesting sections of the book is that which presents actual conversations between the visiting teacher and the pupil or parent and certain detailed case reports in which the teacher's method of procedure is revealed. Space will not permit illustrative quotations. Suffice it to say that the visiting teacher becomes a confidante and adviser with regard to many community and family problems which seem remote from school administration. The confidence which she enjoys makes it possible for her to approach more effectively the special problems assigned to her by the director of her department.

The opinions reported by the author from a wide range of persons are quite unanimous as to the results of the visiting-teacher program. From the standpoint of the individual pupil, it is estimated that about four-fifths of the children referred to the visiting teacher concerning whom any information was available showed at least slight improvement. About two-fifths were much improved. Other results consisted of relieving teachers and principals of many burdensome

details, of bringing about changes and additions in curriculum and equipment, of changing the attitude of classroom teachers toward individual pupils, of giving parents a better understanding of the school system, of giving parents and social workers a better understanding of individual children, and of developing certain civic projects for the benefit of the children.

The latter part of the book is devoted to a discussion of the administrative relationships of the visiting-teacher department. Here it becomes apparent that this department has established many complicated relationships with numerous agencies within and outside the school. Representative among those within the school are the superintendent, the principals and the department heads, the school nurses and the health-education department, and the departments of special education and vocational guidance. In the community, co-operating with the department are health, recreational, employment, welfare, and protective agencies.

The volume will prove particularly valuable to teachers in service who are interested in suggestions as to how they may supplement their classroom work with some form of community service, to teachers who desire to devote a part or all of their time to visiting under the direction of a department like that in Rochester, to principals and superintendents who may be interested in introducing a similar program into their school systems, and to school patrons who are desirous of keeping in touch with modern educational movements. It is easily read and contains, in sections, an intensely human appeal.

A. J. BRUMBAUGH

Discovering and developing tests of character.—Character education is receiving more attention from thoughtful educators at present than it has at any time in the past. The development of a desirable type of personality; the acquisition of the right sort of ideals; and the development of proper attitudes, dispositions, and methods of using knowledge and skill are considered as important as the acquisition of knowledge and skill.

As a result of this new conception of education, various methods of character development have been proposed and numerous theories have been advanced concerning methods of developing desirable character traits. The proper evaluation of such methods, the determination of the particular phases of strength or weakness in the personality of any child, and the scientific measurement of the results of character instruction have, however, received little attention.

A recent study^x describes an attempt to discover a method of testing character development. The author assumes that there are fundamental differences between non-delinquent and delinquent children and that these differences are measurable. Sociological differentiation was used as the criterion much the same

^x Theodore F. Lentz, Jr., *An Experimental Method for the Discovery and Development of Tests of Character*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 180. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Pp. vi+48.

as the intelligence score has been used as the criterion in the measurement of intelligence. Briefly, the method employed consisted of a preliminary study in which forty proposed character tests were given to two groups of children—a non-delinquent group and a delinquent group—and a later study in which seven of the most promising of the tests were given to three widely separated pairs of delinquent and non-delinquent children as a final measure of the differentiating value of the character tests. The tests were given to 242 children equated as nearly as possible in every feature, such as mental and chronological ages and economic, social, and cultural aspects.

The seven tests in the preliminary study which gave promise of yielding the most satisfactory positive results were Twelve Questions; Pressey Test, Part I; Kohs Test, Exercises 2, 3, and 5; Daily Contribution Test; Paragraph Test; Picture Description Test; and Picture Response Test, No. 1. Of these seven tests, only two revealed in the final study any significant differences between the two types of children and consequently seemed to be of value as a means of measuring character development. The first of these tests was a questionnaire which the pupils were required to answer, embodying twelve questions relating to various likes and dislikes and activities of the children; the second test, the Daily Contribution Test, consisted of five daily contributions of clippings, compositions, etc., of things that were interesting to the pupils.

The study is a distinct contribution to experimental education because of the unusual technique employed and particularly because of the criterion adopted. A new and vitally important field for study and experimentation has been opened up in this pioneer attempt. While the method proposed clearly indicates positive results in the measurement of character development, considerable further study must necessarily be made in the same direction, using larger groups of children and embodying a wider variety of specific tests, in order that a properly refined and standardized test may be evolved.

R. S. NEWCOMB

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